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GENERAL LANGUAGE

English and Its Foreign Relations

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Foreword

The course in general language was first tried out in one of our Detroit schools about twenty years ago. The reactions of pupils, parents, and teachers were such as to warrant the continuation and extension of the course. At the beginning, the course was designed primarily to provide a survey of the basic principles of language in the seventh and eighth grades. Such a survey is consistent with the general purposes and policies of education at the junior-high-school level. The general language course has grown in scope until now it is an accepted part of the curriculum in the seventh and eighth grades in most of our schools.

We have found that general language is valuable because of the increased knowledge of English which it yields. We have also discovered that it enables pupils to proceed more rapidly in their study of foreign languages. It is, therefore, first, a survey course in language; second, a course in English; and third, a gateway to the foreign languages.

As a result of years of practical experience, the general language course has naturally undergone many changes and developed new objectives so that it is now presented in revised form. It stresses the social-civic objective of language study, and it is adapted to pupil interests and abilities.

FRANK CODY,
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

DETROIT, MICHIGAN
JULY, 1939

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To the Teacher

It has been said that "To know what to teach, you must know what men do." In other words, the social use-value of the content of a course is the measure applied to determine its right to a place in the modern curriculum. With this socially functional yardstick in mind, the course in general language has been built. Since language with its endless ramifications touches life everywhere, there can be no question that one of the real needs in life is a thorough understanding and mastery of language. Anything that promotes a more effective use of language and helps to develop citizens able to grasp and to convey thoughts clearly must find a ready place in our schools.

The general-language course not only supplies material and provides concrete, functional, linguistic experiences that lead to appreciation and understanding of the importance of language, but it helps pupils of junior-high-school age to discover their interests and their capacities, and at the same time it enriches their knowledge of the world in which they live.

To children, as well as to adults, language is a commonplace like eating and sleeping, and they do not sense the tremendous part that language plays in their daily lives until this fact is brought forcibly to their attention.

The general-language course develops a language consciousness, and, since language is a social function, social attitudes are set up. The course aims among other things to produce an understanding of the foreign peoples within our gates. In so doing, it fosters in the child of foreign par-

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entage a respect for his parents' background. It seeks to make the child proud of his foreign heritage while developing in him a true patriotism and love of his country. Since reading furnishes a cultural background which helps the pupil to understand American culture, he is encouraged to become acquainted with the library, where he finds a rich array of books and reference material. But the keys which unlock doors to knowledge and understanding are those fascinating little things which we call *words*. Words and their meanings are the tools with which we communicate our thoughts. An enriched vocabulary means a more accurate expression of our own thoughts and a better interpretation of the thoughts of others.

The average pupil of junior-high-school age is eager to learn how people first began to communicate, how words got their meanings, where the English language came from, how to use it to the best advantage, and how to become a good speaker and writer. If the pupils are made to see that form is a necessary element in the comprehension and interpretation of ideas, then the mechanics of language cease to be a disciplinary instrument and become a valuable means to an end. The pupils readily see that every language has its pattern, that words are used in orderly manner according to meaning and following definite rules. They realize that just as they cannot play baseball with football rules, so they cannot play the language game of give and take in everyday life without rules.

Part I of *General Language* deals with language in the broad sense and with English in particular, showing how it developed and grew to be perhaps the richest language in the world. An effort is made to show how many different people and different languages have helped to make the language of this country what it is today. A glimpse into the past and a glance at our fellowmen in other lands are intended to make our pupils more tolerant of foreigners, more conscious of our mutual dependence, and more

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eager to become better acquainted with the rest of the world. We find that, just as the people of this country have come from many lands, so the English language owes a tremendous debt to other languages from which it gets over half of its vocabulary; for while the English language is basically Germanic, it contains over fifty per cent Latin and French words, not to mention words from other sources.

In the preparation of *General Language*, the differences in individual children's abilities and interests were kept constantly in mind. The fact that material which is highly stimulating and easily grasped by some may be incomprehensible and therefore dull for others led us to plan for ample flexibility in both material and methods. The exercises and activities are sufficiently informal to be adaptable to the needs and interests of all junior-high-school pupils.

The alert teacher will first study each group of pupils, noting their general intelligence, and then present the material without adhering to any arbitrary method or time allotment, being guided by the interest and ability of the group. Since children do not all fit into prescribed molds, we do not expect all of them to progress at the same rate. Neither do we intend that all of them shall do all the activities. There is a wide range of selection which enables the pupil to make his own choice. This in itself is a valuable thought process. As the pupil applies himself assiduously to the preparation of his chosen topic and to the working out of his activity, he will improve according to his capacity in his use of language. Aims and objectives are to be measured in terms of pupil growth, not in terms of subject-matter mastery.

We can only roughly estimate the time to be allotted to each chapter. The very purpose of the various chapters is different. In some of them we present facts, in others we arouse curiosity; in some we summarize knowledge and particularize vague notions, in others we appeal to the keener minds of a few; and all to stimulate the pupils' interest in

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the many phases of language. It is the teacher's task to help the pupil to interpret experiences in terms of individual and social living.

The content of the course is as broad as the needs and uses of language permit. The old concepts of language as a tool of thought, as literature, as a code, must be enlarged to include language as a form of social behavior essential in establishing desirable relations between individuals enabling them to work together harmoniously.

The class as a social group is the place to apply and develop the principles of language usage. Much oral discussion and planning should precede all written work. The general plan of what the pupil is to write should be made, and the main ideas which bear on the subject should be organized. This means that pupils learn to be co-workers and recognize that they are members of a social group where each one is given an opportunity to stand on his own feet and do his part of the work.

A class discussion may lead to remote topics of interest to children, if not to adults, and if wisely guided by the teacher such a discussion can be quickly brought back to the definite point where the departure occurred and the threads can be picked up from there.

The text may be read aloud in class by pupils part of the time or by the teacher who interpolates explanations as she reads. At other times the class may read silently a designated portion, after which some questions may be answered in writing. This thought survey will train in comprehension and will require every pupil to do his own thinking and express his thoughts clearly and accurately. This leads the pupil to realize why a large vocabulary is valuable and why a knowledge of grammar is helpful. The dictionary becomes a source of interest as well as of help.

Part II of *General Language* contains a sampling from several languages which may be studied more or less superficially as the teacher sees fit. Maybe the large majority of

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our pupils have neither the time nor the interest to take up the serious study of any one foreign language, but all pupils are curious about these foreign languages. Here is an opportunity to find out something about the geography and cultural background of other nations and to see what a foreign language looks like, perhaps to read a little and try out a few sentences.

This foreign language material offers opportunities for teachers who know one or more foreign languages to arouse enthusiasm in many pupils who have ability to learn a foreign language which may be of great practical value in their future work. This course may serve as a gateway to foreign language study, but that is not its chief aim. It is primarily a survey course in language viewed historically and comparatively. It takes us far afield wherever language leads us. It lends to language study a new purpose for the pupil and opens up vast areas of interest for his ever growing curiosity and enthusiasm.

The author wishes to express her indebtedness to many without whose generous interest and encouragement the general-language course could not have developed: to Superintendent Frank Cody for his permission to experiment in the schools; to Mr. Manley Irwin, Director of Instruction, for his constant encouragement; to Dr. H. L. Harrington, Supervising Director of Intermediate Schools, for furthering the experiments in the intermediate schools; to Mr. Marquis E. Shattuck, Director of Language Education, for his never failing helpfulness; to Dr. Herman Browe, Assistant Superintendent, for his permission to extend the work into the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary schools under his direction; to District Principals and Principals who have so heartily co-operated and have adjusted school programs to find a place for this course; to the many classroom teachers for the enthusiasm and energy they have put into making the course an inspiration to pupils — to all these and to many others the author offers her sincere

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thanks, acknowledging her deep indebtedness to them for the success of the general language in the schools of this city.

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To many others who, by their generous encouragement and helpfulness, have contributed to the successful completion of this book the author offers her hearty thanks, knowing how great a share of the credit for this text belongs to them.

L. L.

DETROIT, MICHIGAN

DECEMBER 20, 1939

Part One



LANGUAGE

One of Man's Most Important Inventions



The Need of Language in Our Daily Lives

There are many languages in the world. Here we are — somewhere in the United States. John and Bill are on their way to the ball game. John is on one side of the street and Bill on the other. John lifts his hand and makes a circular motion for Bill to come over. Bill crosses the street and says, "Hello, John." John grins and nods.

Presto! Now we are in Germany. Wilhelm and Karl come along on opposite sides of the street. Wilhelm makes a circular motion with his hand for Karl to come over. Karl crosses the street and says, "Wie geht's, Wilhelm?" Wilhelm grins and nods.

Presto! Now we are in France. René and Jules are on opposite sides of the street. René makes a circular motion with his hand for Jules to come over. Jules crosses the street and says, "Comment ça va, René?" René grins and nods.

These boys, in three different countries, all make the same circular motion with the hand to mean "Come here." We see that there is a general sign language which is understandable in different countries, and, of course, the grin and the nod are also generally understood. But, can John and Bill grasp the



John and Bill, Wilhelm and Karl, René and Jules all make the same circular motion with the hand to mean "Come here."

meaning of "Wie geht's"? Can we? How do we do it? Do John and Bill know what René and Jules mean when they say, "Comment ça va"? Do we know?

Although the words are different in English, German, and French, the thought is the same. All the boys said, "How do you do?" but not all in the same words.

People who live and work together must understand the same language. An American boy uses the speech of his home and of his country. His friends and neighbors understand him. The German and the French boys use the speech of their homes and of

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their countries. Their friends and neighbors understand them. We say, "Everybody does not speak the same language." That is true. The Germans would say, "Alle Menschen sprechen nicht dieselbe Sprache." The French would say, "Tout le monde ne parle pas la même langue."

Perhaps someone in the class can express this same thought in another language. Who can?

A grin and a nod have the same meaning everywhere. We know that some signs are easily understood everywhere, while others are not. Perhaps some of you can exchange ideas by signs. Who can show us how to do it?

Language helps us to think and it helps us to tell what we are thinking about. If John and Bill want to talk over the ball game after it is finished, they will need more than signs to express their ideas. They will need *words*, and they will also need words to *think* their ideas. No matter where we live we must have a language in which to think our thoughts and to tell them to others. *Some form of language is a necessity in our daily lives.* We need language in order to work and to play together. We need language to work intelligently with other people. John and Bill exchange thoughts about the game, and explain it to others; that is, they spread information. In like manner, someone had explained the game to them years before, when they first began to play ball in the empty lot near home. Do you recall your first baseball team or basketball team? You had to learn the rules of the game and you had to practice regu-



This young chef is paying strict attention to the directions.

larly. Perhaps you had a coach to help train your team so that it was the envy of the league to which you belonged. You learned how necessary it was to acquire knowledge about the game before you could attain any degree of perfection. So it is with all of us. We have to acquire knowledge from other people or from books. We have to talk things over and we need language to think, to exchange ideas and to spread information.

You girls will remember when you first learned to bake a cake or make candy. You had to follow directions very carefully, otherwise the cake would be spoiled or the candy would become as hard as stone. An understanding of the language was necessary to make your ef-

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forts successful. A spoonful of sugar and a pint of water would make very queer candy, but a cupful of sugar with half a pint of water might produce a base for some good candy. Suppose you were to read, "Take two eggs, beat the yolks and the whites separately," and suppose you did not know what the words meant, could you bake a cake? Words are valuable little things; we shall see this as we go on with our study of language.

New ideas call for new words and new powers of thought and expression. Let us recall a journey which we have all taken. It was something like the climb up Jack's famous beanstalk we read about when we were very young. Jack's climb led to a fairy land, whereas our climb has led us step by step to the present moment, as we see in the picture on page 9.

When we were small children, and on the first ledge, our whole interest was centered in our family circle, which consisted of brothers and sisters, uncles, aunts, grandparents, and dearest and most important of all, mother and father. We did not need or want anyone else. Then, when we were old enough to go out and play with other children in the neighborhood, we had reached the second stage. On Sundays, when we were dressed in our best suits or our daintiest frocks and went to church, our world was widened, and we had reached the third ledge.

When we were old enough to go to school, we moved up to the fourth step; our world became still larger, and we were proud to learn that we could communicate with teacher and new playmates. Through our use of language, we learned our lessons and grew in wisdom.

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Now we are old enough to know that we are a part of a city, and that our city is a part of our state. We know, too, that 47 other states join with ours to form our own United States — our nation, where live more than 130 million people, all like ourselves building happy lives, loving their families and their country. We see a magic power, binding us together, uniting us as a great nation, the common bond of *language*.

All the world has thoughts to share. The very word *language* suggests sharing thoughts with others. People listen to us as we express our thoughts and in return give us their ideas. Our efforts to understand each other have resulted in speech groups, that is, groups of people using the same language. As good citizens we, in America, fit into the English speech group and contribute our best to the well-being of our entire nation.

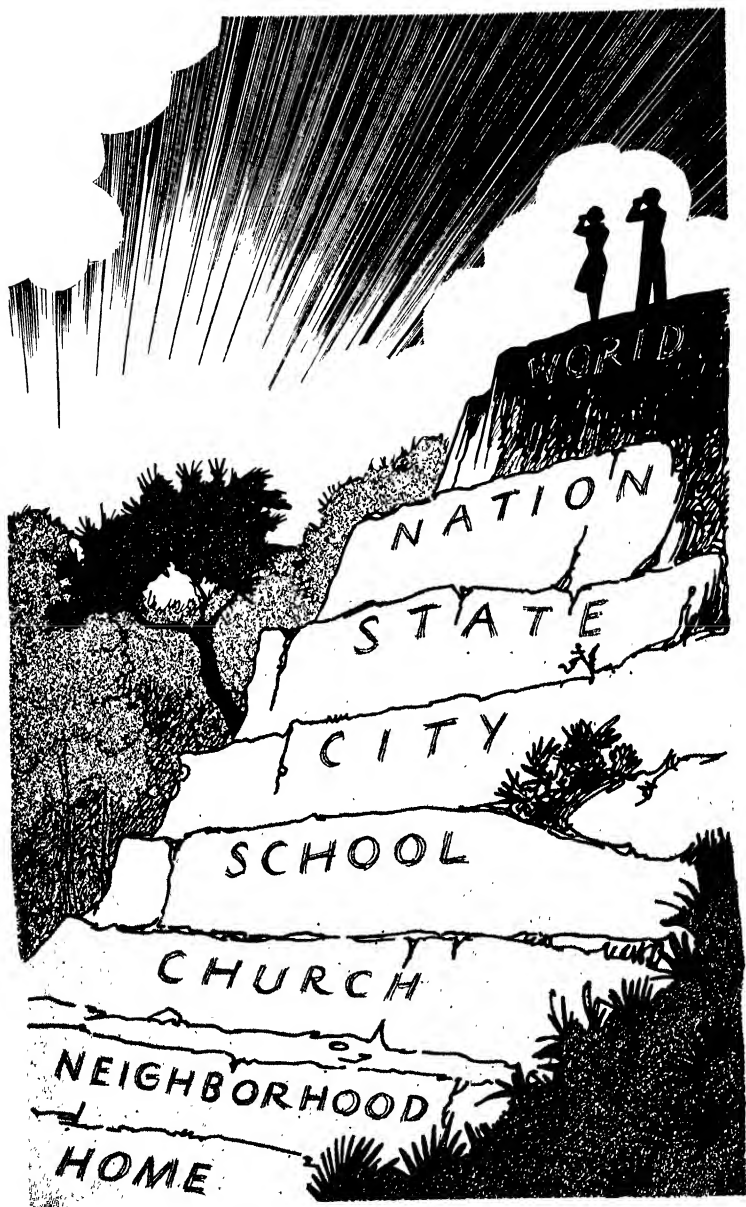
But we have one step further to go in our climb, for at the top is the whole world to which we belong. All the peoples of the world need to exchange ideas freely in order to understand each other. Misunderstandings will be cleared up when nations, like individuals, talk things over.

Fortunately some of the best things in the world are free. As James Russell Lowell said in a poem: ¹

'Tis heaven alone that is given away,
'Tis only God may be had for the asking;
No price is set on the lavish summer;
June may be had by the poorest comer.

The poet might have mentioned another wonderful gift that is free to the poorest of us, language, which is

¹ "Vision of Sir Launfal."



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as free as the air we breathe. In order to talk things over we must have language.

Our language has rules which we must understand. We must remember, however, that language is of little value to us if we use it in such a way that we fail to make ourselves understood. Sometimes our stock of words is too small or perhaps we do not use the words in the way demanded by our particular speech groups. A language consists of words used in the way that other people in our community use them, so if, when we mean *cat*, we say *tac*, nobody will understand what we mean. Jumble the sounds in other words, too, and people will wonder where we came from and what we are trying to say. This should make us realize how important it is to pronounce and spell words correctly, so that we do not write *brun* when we mean to spell *burn*.

Imagine in what kind of a world we should be living if we were not able to utter a word that could be understood by anyone else! Suppose we could not say, "Give me a quarter for the show, please, Dad." Or, "I want a cookie, Mother." Or, "Let's go on a picnic."

How did you get your name? With no language, there would be no radio stories, no movie thrillers. Of course, there would be no names for things and even you would be without a name. How do you suppose people got their names? We are so used to knowing people by name that we cannot imagine a time when there were no names to distinguish different people. Since very early times there have probably been first names like John, William, Mary, Elizabeth, Peter, Paul, Ruth, and Esther. If we think of people in the

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Bible we usually recall first names only: Moses, Abraham, David, Solomon, John, and Matthew.

Parents seem to select certain names more often than others. Think how many Marys and Elizabeths, Johns and Williams you know. Likewise, years ago in England there were so many persons with the same names living in the same neighborhood that some descriptive word or phrase had to be added to distinguish which Mary or John was meant. Maybe the most common thing was to say, "John, Tom's son," or "Jack, Will's son," until *surnames* (that is, *super names* or extra names) like Thompson and Wilson became common. There were other ways of describing people. There were men called Long, Short, High, Low, Brown, Black, White, Blue, Green, Weaver, Taylor, Shoemaker, Gardener, Smith, Farmer, and so on. We can easily add to this list of names, all of which were first used to single out and describe individuals. In order to distinguish one person from another, some word or phrase that described the person was used; for example, John the bald, John the smith, John the buyer, John the seller. All these names were used in early days to tag or label a man.

Some names do not seem very appropriate. You may know someone named "Long" who is short. But you may be sure that Mr. Long's ancestor who was given that surname was *long*.

Similarly, names of things do not always describe them very accurately. We can all, perhaps, sympathize with the little child who is represented as speaking in the following poem:

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THE FAITHLESS FLOWERS

I went this morning down to where the Johnny-Jump-Ups
grow

Like naughty purple faces nodding in a row.

I stayed 'most all the morning there — I sat down on a
stump

And watched and watched and watched them — and they
never gave a jump!

And Golden Glow that stands up tall and yellow by the
fence,

It doesn't glow a single bit — it's only just pretence —

I ran down after tea last night to watch them in the dark —

I had to light a match to see; they didn't give a spark!

And then the Bouncing Bets don't bounce — I tried them
yesterday,

I picked a big pink bunch down in the meadow where they
stay,

I took a piece of string I had and tied them in a ball,

And threw them down as hard as hard — they never
bounced at all!

And Tiger Lilies may look fierce, to meet them all alone,

All tall and black and yellowy and nodding by a stone,

But they're no more like tigers than the dogwood's like a
dog,

Or bulrushes are like a bull or toadwort like a frog!

I like the flowers very much — they're pleasant as can be

For bunches on the table, and to pick and wear and see,

But still it doesn't seem quite fair — it does seem very
queer —

They don't do what they're named for — not at any time
of year!

From *Little Girl and Boy Land* by Margaret Widdemer.
Copyright, 1924, by Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc.

There is a story of a man who bet that he could ask a question and get the same answer from the first ten persons he addressed. The question was: "Where does Smith live?" The man declared that everybody would ask, "Which Smith?" Do you think he won his bet? Well, he certainly would have won it, but the tenth man whom he asked changed the usual form of reply by saying, "Do you mean John Smith or Henry Smith?"

There are many other amusing stories of names of persons and places. Do you happen to know a good one?

We do not use our language in the same way under all conditions. No two persons are exactly alike, not even twins. No two places are exactly alike; no two nations are exactly alike; no two languages are exactly alike. One person



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does not even speak his own language exactly the same at all times. There are times when he wishes to speak very carefully and make a good impression on his listeners. He wants to make them change their minds about something; he tries to be very friendly and hopes to win their approval. Another time, he is furious. They are to blame for his tripping and falling and breaking his arm. We hear how angry he is. Not only the tone of his voice, but the words he uses tell us clearly how he feels. The words we use and the way we use them vary with the circumstances and our purposes.

Everything we learn depends on our knowledge of language. Every class we attend is really a language class because we must be able to understand our teacher, our group leaders, and our classmates. Then, too, we are using language whenever we enter into a discussion, or tell the class about interesting things we have read, or heard, or experienced.

Do you know the story of Helen Keller? When she was about two years old she had a serious illness which robbed her of her eyesight and likewise left her deaf. Unable to hear voices or sounds, she could not imitate them, and she soon lost her power of speech. As we picture to ourselves the emptiness of a world where we could neither see the members of our family nor hear their voices, nor express our simplest wants, we can realize, just faintly, what a hopeless life Helen Keller had. But with the help of her patient and skillful teacher, Miss Anne Sullivan, Helen slowly learned something about the world that she could not see and about the language which she was unable to use. In

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time, Helen Keller went to college and graduated with honors in spite of her tremendous handicap.

We need good habits of study to increase our knowledge so that we shall learn easily. With our ability to see, to hear, and to speak, how much easier it will be for us to increase our knowledge. Speaking of increasing one's knowledge makes us think of the way a snowball grows as we roll it. At first the ball is very small and round, but it grows and grows as it rolls until it is large enough for us to hide behind. In the same way our use of language grows word by word and sentence by sentence, and it will continue to grow as we profit by the exercises and helps which we find in this book. As we become skilled in using our language, we shall learn to understand people and make them understand us. We shall learn how to be intelligent group leaders, and how to take part in discussions.

In order to find material for our work we shall need to know how to use books of reference. This is a necessary part of our language work. Perhaps the school librarian will show us how to find interesting stories about topics which will be suggested at the end of each chapter. If there is no library in the school, there is surely a Public Library in the neighborhood and the librarian is always glad to help us.

Our book will help us to get a better knowledge of the people who have done their share in the past to make the world so full of wonders. We shall then understand better what civilization means. We shall see what a tremendously important part language has played in the progress of the world.

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Our book is going to place before us some facts, give us certain experiences, set up problems for thought and discussion, and suggest lines of activities, all built around language, which is a necessity in our daily lives.

Words are like the colors that an artist uses. They are his materials with which he may paint the world's

greatest masterpieces, but it is the artist who makes the picture. Words are *your* materials; *you* are the artist; you must use words to make your pictures. Word pictures are often very sketchy, sometimes faded, but sometimes they are clear and bright. This depends, in part, on the skill with which the artist uses his materials, his words.



H. Armstrong Roberts

One of the purposes of this course is to help us to increase our stock of words so that we may make beautiful, clear, outstanding pictures to suit every occasion. Whether we are carrying on a friendly conversation, giving a formal talk, writing a letter or a composition, we need the right words, and we must use them in the right way. Forceful speakers and able writers know the value of using language in the right way at all times.

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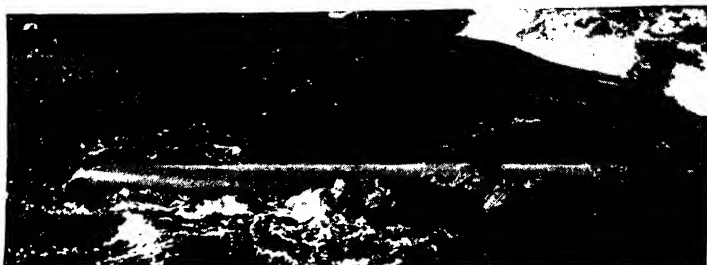
Talking to Oneself

★=====★

Our thoughts are like a stream. If you were suddenly awakened from a sound sleep by the cry, " Help! Help! " what would you do first of all? Perhaps you would leap out of bed and rush to the window or door. That movement would be natural — somebody is in danger and needs help; you act without knowing why or where you are going.

Suppose now that you did not immediately leap out of bed; you probably began to think by asking yourself whether you merely dreamed that somebody cried for help or whether there actually was somebody crying for help. Then you would listen to hear if the cry were repeated. You would be wondering where the cry came from, who uttered it, and why. If it were not repeated, and if you heard nobody stirring in the house, and no sounds from outside, you would perhaps consider whether it would be worth while getting out of your comfortable bed to go and investigate. You would then start to think of the terrible things that might happen in the dead of night. You would recall that time last summer when you and some friends were out on the lake and the boat suddenly tipped over, and you were hurled into the water and scared almost to death because you were not a very good swimmer. The first

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H. Armstrong Roberts

“ Help! Help! ”

thing you heard when you rose to the surface of the water was the cry, “ Help! Help! ” You remember how firmly you determined that you were going to learn to swim right away. Well, what fun you had in the water after that with the same group of friends, and what fun you will have again! Next summer you want to go away to camp with some of the same friends. Your father told you that that would depend on your work in school. But school work has been easier this year. You go on and on in this way, *one idea leading to another* until finally you fall asleep again.

We think with words. We can liken this flow of thought to a stream which flows on and on. It picks up one idea after another, just as the stream picks up bits of driftwood, chips, and dry leaves, and carries them along until some obstacle, a rock or a bend in the shore line, halts the various bits of floating material; but the stream flows on. Thought may be compared to that stream. We think of something which starts from one idea and leads to another. All the time that we are awake, we are thinking. *Thinking is just talking to one-self*, although not aloud.

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We know, however, that the outdoor stream is not able to choose or select the bits of wood or chips or leaves that it carries along. The stream of thought, fortunately, can control and select the ideas which it wishes to use. It can reject or throw aside as worthless or undesirable that which does not contribute force and clearness to the main current of thought. A straight thinker is one who does not allow his thoughts to be turned aside into the various little streams or rivulets that lead nowhere. He puts his attention on the goal ahead and uses only such ideas as seem to help him reach his goal.

The thoughts we think are sometimes hard to put into words. Indeed, how often we are about to express some thought, when it flies away as if on wings. Why do we often find it so difficult to put into words clearly what is in our mind? Perhaps it is because we do not know the exact words needed to carry our ideas to others. Perhaps the picture in our mind is not clear.

Our thoughts are more useful when we can express them clearly. It is the ability to think and reason and compare that places man far above the beasts. But in order that the world may benefit by a clear thinker, his thoughts must not remain locked up in his mind. Ideas must pass from one mind to another, and to many others, before the most good can come from them.

For hundreds of years men have wanted to be able to fly like birds. Many men thought about flying, how to make it possible to raise a man and carry him through the air. They kept thinking that a man should be able to fly if he could have wings like a bird. And today,

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Courtesy of the Boeing Aircraft Corporation and Orville Wright

Compare this modern four-engined Stratoliner with the Wright brothers' plane. Orville Wright made the first flight in this power-driven airplane at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina on December 17, 1903. Of four flights made that morning, the longest was 59 seconds and the distance 852 feet.

thanks to ideas that gradually became clearer and clearer, men are able to fly. You have probably heard about the Wright brothers and their first flight. It is a wonderful story of how an idea carried in the minds of many men and put to work finally became a reality. Today it is possible to fly from New York to California in less than twenty-four hours, whereas, a hundred years ago it took months to cross the country from coast to coast in a covered wagon. Thus ideas put into action may benefit the whole world.

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The sharing of ideas, or passing on of thoughts, we call expression. Without expression we should have to live the way Robinson Crusoe did before Friday came to share his loneliness.

Before a scientist or an inventor can develop his own idea or make it known to others, he must use some symbol or sign that stands for that idea. Most of his symbols or signs would be what we call words. Every language consists of words, spoken or written. These words, or signs for ideas, are different in different languages, but the thoughts may be the same whether we are Indians, Chinese, Spaniards, or Englishmen.

Reading brings us many thoughts. We cannot remember when we first began to use words. We were very young, of course, and our attempts at using words often made the family laugh. But most of us can remember when we read our first little story and how proud we were. Perhaps you remember the thrill of reading "The Little Red Hen," or "Little Black Sambo." As we grew older, one of our greatest pleasures was reading.

Isn't it fun on a stormy night to curl up in a cozy chair in the company of a good book? The wind may howl but we do not care, for every page of our story leads us into all sorts of adventures. Have you ever stopped to think what a truly wonderful thing it is to be able to read?

What do we do when we read? We look at the words on the page. Those little symbols or signs, called words, arranged along horizontal lines, have meaning for us because we know what each represents. Some words



Keystone

"Isn't it fun on a stormy night to curl up in a cozy chair in the company of a good book?"

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are short and simple while others are long and important looking. When we see words that are familiar to us, a certain picture or idea flashes across our minds. The words recall past experiences and are therefore understandable to us. Our ability to get a thought from a printed word and carry it to our minds is one of our greatest achievements.

Can you see what others think? Let us look again at these little symbols called words. We have been told that they stand for ideas, but what ideas? Whose ideas? No word could appear unless put there by someone, any more than a door could slam unless blown by the wind or pushed by some power that is stronger than itself. The power, stronger than the word, is the mind of the person whose thought is expressed by the word.

What do we do when we read a word, a sentence, or a story? We bring to our minds ideas that may first have been in the mind of the author.

The same object seems different from different points of view. However, all people who read a given word, or even a story, do not think of it in exactly the same way. What a reader gets from a word or story depends very much on the experience which that reader has previously had. For example, if a child had once been bitten by a dog, would he get the same picture from the word "dog" as would another child who had always had the jolliest of good times with an affectionate dog? It seems that no two people, not even sisters, have had the same experiences and, therefore, the pictures that words make are not the same for everyone.

Let us try an experiment to test this idea. Let us take

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a sheet of paper and put for our title, "An Experiment." Here is the word *boat*. Write a brief description of the picture that comes to you. Write the pictures accurately so that the one who hears or reads your word picture will see a detailed, clear impression of what was in your mind. After your paragraph has been written, several of you might read your word pictures to the class one right after the other for comparison.

Below are a few word pictures written by 8B pupils in the Jackson Intermediate School, Detroit, Michigan.

BOAT

I saw a beautiful sailboat with its white sails blowing in the breeze. Against a powder-blue sky it seemed to glide through the white capped waves like a swan. It didn't seem natural.

Mildred Bristow

It was a huge thing, very clean, neat, and nicely painted. Decks were covered with chairs, and people sitting on the chairs talking and laughing. Smoke poured out of the brightly colored funnel projecting above the whitewashed sides. The flag waved happily and made a beautiful scene.

Muriel Rehm

This small cruiser has a brown cabin, but everything else is white. It is large enough for just a few passengers. It is always on the lookout for anything suspicious as it cruises up and down the Great Lakes.

Shirley Bates

I am sailing merrily along in a large blue sailboat with large white sails. The canvas is almost touching the water. A large gust of wind has just come up and is blowing us along our way.

Eva Gill

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This small blue and gold boat has a very funny shape. It is a canoe. Being so long and narrow it has room for only two. If you do not paddle right it will turn over.

Marie Mowen

There is a large yellow moon shining down on this distant sailboat. The dusk makes the boat appear the same color as the water. It is called "Gull."

Janet Conroy

Two men with helmets on are steering this boat. It is brown, small, and has a steering wheel like that of an automobile. The boat has passed the mark and is slowing down. It has just won the race.

Kathryn Henderson

We trade thoughts every day. When a reader understands the words he reads he becomes a part owner of the thoughts and can use them as he wishes. Every boy and girl can learn to read, and when he has finished reading a book, he has every right to be proud of his achievement. He shares in the interchange of ideas that make our civilization and our progress; for, whether he realizes it or not, he will make use of the ideas gained in his reading.

Words are not the only means of exchanging ideas. Music has power to make pictures for us. Great musicians can, by their melodies, make us see beautiful scenes, some light and gay, others dark and sad.

WHEN MUSIC SPEAKS

Oh, when I hear a martial strain
Alive with drum and flute
I always see parades and bands,
And soldiers at salute.

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Courtesy of Steinway and Sons

The great Paderewski striking a chord in Beethoven's "Moonlight Sonata."

And for a quick, staccato piece
I picture elves at night,
In prankish play beneath the moon —
It's really quite a sight.

But when I hear loud crashing chords,
A minor symphony,
I think of cities, noise or storm:
It does strange things to me.

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Then, little sparkling, dainty trills
Remind of babbling brooks,
And dancing fairies in a ring,
Or stars and flowery nooks.

So, music means so much to me,
Since I have heard notes speak
Now I can know their stories all —
It's really quite a treat.

— Eugenie F. Gluckert

Reprinted by permission of *The Etude Music Magazine*.

A painter may be so deeply moved by the beauty of a lovely cottage nestling in some quaint spot that he wants others to see it as he sees it. But the symbols he uses are not words, but color, lines, shape, and proportion. When we stand before the finished picture we see, according to our understanding, the thoughts that were in the mind of the artist. He has expressed his ideas in his way. When we are at home we may want to tell our mother about this picture. Our thought must be carried to her by the commonest means of expression, that is, by words. The more words we know and the greater the skill with which we use them, the more accurate and distinct will be the picture we give our mother of our understanding of the artist's ideas.

So we see that there are many ways to exchange ideas. Let us try an experiment to test for ourselves how the stream of thought works.

A FAIR EXCHANGE IS NO ROBBERY

On our way to the shore we stopped the car in front of a farmhouse to buy some fruit which looked good to us. No-

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body was in sight. The only representative of the household was a horse contentedly munching the grass in the front yard. The family wash was on the line in the back yard. Our shouts brought no one, so we helped ourselves to some of the fruit. Putting a dollar bill into the empty basket and saying to ourselves, "A fair exchange is no robbery," we continued happily on our way.

QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED ORALLY OR IN WRITING

1. Does the above paragraph make a picture in your mind?
2. What season of the year was it?
3. What is meant by *car*?
4. What is a farmhouse?
5. What did the house look like?
6. What kind of fruit was it?
7. Where was the fruit?
8. Who was in the house?
9. What is a household?
10. What is a representative?
11. What is another word for *munching*?
12. What is a horse?
13. What is the meaning of *contentedly*?
14. What was the color of the grass?
15. What did the fact that the wash was on the line show?
16. What is a shout and what purpose does it serve?
17. Is it honorable to help oneself to something which belongs to someone else?
18. Why did we put money in the basket?
19. Could we have taken the fruit without paying for it? Why did we not?
20. What is meant by "A fair exchange is no robbery"?
21. Was a dollar bill a fair price for the fruit?
22. Who or what determines a "fair price" for any article?
23. Do farmers always sell their produce at a "fair price"? Why, or why not?
24. Should we have gone away without the fruit?
25. Why did we go "happily" on our way?

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Now that we have finished our experiment let us consider how closely the members of the class agreed in their ideas of this story called "A Fair Exchange Is No Robbery."

GIVE AND TAKE — A TRUE DISCUSSION

In a democratic country like ours, people learn much by listening to the opinions of those who make up the community, the state, and the nation. They listen to all the facts, reason carefully toward the truth, and read what others have to say about the matter. They throw away opinions that do not measure up to the facts. Straight thinkers listen to all sides of a question; they never form quick judgments without fairly considering all the facts, both for and against a question.

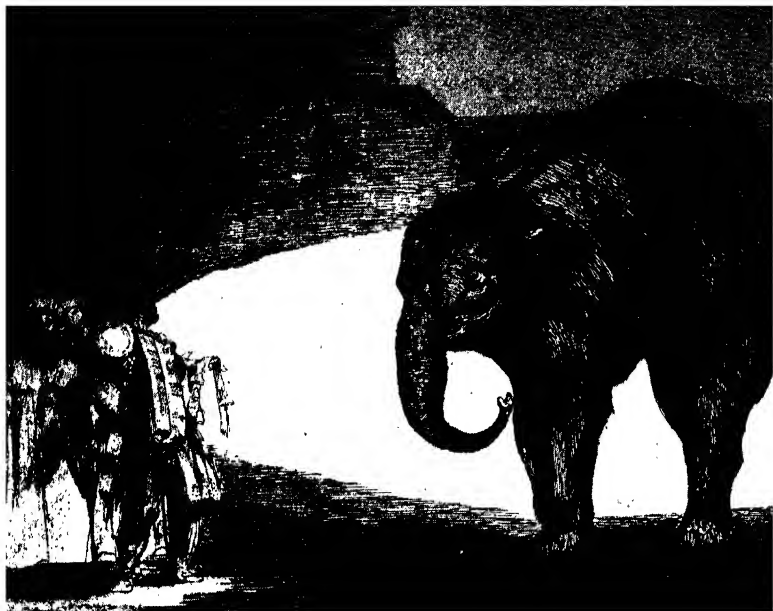
Perhaps you know the following story.

THE BLIND MEN AND THE ELEPHANT

There were once six blind men who stood by the roadside every day, and begged from the people who passed. They had often heard of elephants, but, of course, they had never seen one. It happened one day that an elephant was driven down the road where they stood. When they were told that the huge beast was before them they asked the driver to let him stop so that they might see him. Of course they could not see with their eyes; but they thought that by touching him they could learn just what kind of an animal he was.

The first one happened to put his hand on the elephant's side. "Well, well! Now I know all about this beast," he said. "He is exactly like a wall."

The second fellow felt only of the elephant's tusk. "My



From a painting by Goya, the famous Spanish artist who lived from 1746-1828.

brother," he said, " you are mistaken. He is not like a wall. He is round, smooth, and sharp. He is more like a spear than anything else."

The third happened to take hold of the elephant's trunk. " Both of you are wrong," he said. " Anybody can see that this elephant is like a snake."

The fourth reached out and grasped one of the animal's legs. " Oh, how blind you are! It is very clear that he is round and tall like a tree! "

The fifth was a very tall man and he happened to take hold of the elephant's ear. " The blindest man ought to know," he said, " that this beast is not as you think he is. He is exactly like a huge fan."

The sixth was very blind indeed and it was some time before he found the elephant at all. At last he seized the animal's tail. " Oh, foolish fellows," he cried, " you surely

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have lost your senses. Any man can easily see that this animal is exactly like a rope."

Then the elephant moved on and the six blind men sat and quarreled about him. Each believed that he knew exactly how the animal looked; and each called the others hard names because they did not agree with him. People who have eyes sometimes act as foolishly.

Many questions come up today which we see as blindly as the six blind men saw the elephant in the story. If we are to be able to judge wisely, we must be willing to see all sides of any question; we must listen to the opinions of others and believe the truth as far as we are able to understand it. Straight thinkers are not like the blind men.

In this course we are going to have many discussions. A discussion must be a true "give-and-take" activity. A few suggestions will assure the success of such an activity.

1. A leader who is fair, courteous, and alert is to be chosen to read each topic for discussion.
2. Speakers are to be "recognized," that is, called upon by the leader, before they contribute their opinions.
3. Speakers are to step away from their seats, and face the greatest possible number of pupils in the class.
4. Speakers are to speak in a clear, loud voice.
5. Speakers are to express their ideas in the best possible language.
6. Everyone is to show respect for statements made by members of the group.
7. The leader is to end the discussion when he thinks a question has been sufficiently discussed.
8. Each member of the group is to participate in the discussion, that is, take some part.

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Let us now discuss what we have learned from the earlier experiment in this chapter.

1. What is an experiment?
2. Why do we ask if the paragraph makes a picture in your mind?
3. Do words produce pictures?
4. Do the same words always produce the same pictures in every mind?
5. What is the purpose of language?
6. Why do different people see different pictures in the same word?
7. When a porter on a train says to you "next car," does he use the word *car* in the same sense in which we used it in our paragraph beginning on page 29?
8. Do you suppose that your picture of a farmhouse is the same as mine? Why, or why not?
9. Is the word *house* so fixed in meaning that it makes the same picture for everyone?
10. How do you know that grass is green?
11. Why did the wash on the line tell you something about the occupants of the house?
12. Does everybody have the same idea of what is honorable?
13. Is it as wrong to take an apple belonging to someone else as it is to take a ring? Why, or why not?
14. If a farmer needs a pair of shoes and has a basket of peaches to exchange for the shoes, what must he do?
15. Why did people long ago invent *money*?
16. What was money like in olden times?
17. What makes a paper bill worth five, ten, or twenty dollars?
18. Why is it contrary to the law for private individuals to print paper money?
19. If a man hands out a false ten-dollar bill in return for a pair of shoes, is that a fair exchange?
20. There is a whole lesson in civilization in the story of money. See what you can find out about it.
21. What were we trying to discover by our experiment?

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22. Has this discussion helped you to understand how one idea leads to another?

23. Does it help you to talk over questions with other people? Explain why or why not.

24. Do you realize now how easy it is to get away from the subject under discussion and talk about other things? Explain why.

Remember the discussion that you have just had when the next opportunity comes for class discussion. Use as your motto for all discussions: "Give and Take."

We said before that a straight thinker uses only such ideas as seem to help him to reach his goal, which is to express clearly his main idea so that the listener or reader may easily follow his thinking. Whether he is speaking or writing, he arranges his ideas in orderly, related sentences. The sentence which contains his main idea is called a *topic sentence*. Supporting ideas used to explain or round out the main idea are known as *subtopics*. These, the main topic and the subtopics, the straight thinker organizes into a *paragraph*.

What is a paragraph? A paragraph, then, is a group of related ideas which cover one aspect of a general subject.

In the paragraph, the topic sentence usually comes first, but it may come anywhere, sometimes even standing last, as in the paragraph on page 29. In any case, the purpose of the subtopics is to help round out the main thought, by expanding it or leading up to it.

Let us look again at the paragraph on page 29 entitled "A Fair Exchange Is No Robbery" and the questions which follow it. The questions were suggested by the paragraph. Suppose the writer had expressed

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all these ideas in his paragraph, what a confused and disconnected group of ideas we should have to disentangle to follow the main idea.

Instead of putting into the form of questions the many thoughts that came into our mind while reading the paragraph, we might make new paragraphs and thus expand topic and subtopics into a complete composition.

The word composition means putting together. Compositions are made up of paragraphs; paragraphs are made up of sentences; and sentences are made up of words. Again we are reminded of the importance of words. Read the following poem and see how many of the words you know.

A JINGLE OF WORDS

Don't you love the common words
In usage all the time;
Words that paint a masterpiece,
Words that beat a rhyme,
Words that sing a melody,
Words that leap and run,
Words that sway a multitude,
Or stir the heart of one?

Don't you love the lively words —
Flicker, leap, and flash;
Tumble, stumble, pitch, and toss,
Dive and dart and dash,
Scramble, pirouette, and prance;
Hurtle, hurdle, fling;
Waddle, toddle, trot, and dance,
Soar and snatch and swing?

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Don't you love the lengthy words —

Subterranean,
Artificial, propagate,
Neapolitan,
Revelation, elevate,
Ambidexterous,
Undenominational,
Simultaneous?

Don't you love the noisy words —

Clatter, pop, and bang;
Scrape and creak and snail and snort,
Crash and clash and clang;
Crackle, cackle, yowl, and yap;
Snicker, snare, and sneeze;
Screech and bellow, slash and howl;
Whistle, whine, and wheeze?

Don't you love the colorful —

Amber, rose, and gold;
Orchid, orange, and cerise;
Crimson, emerald;
Purple, plum, and lavender;
Peach and Prussian blue;
Turquoise matrix, jade, and jet;
Hazel, honeydew?

Don't you love descriptive words —

Lantern-jawed and prim;
Swarthy, slick, effeminate,
Sloppy, slimy, slim;
Chubby, cute, and greedy-eyed;
Portly, pale, and lean;
Mangy, messy, lank, and low;
Furtive and serene?

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Yes, with just the common words
In usage everywhere,
You can capture incidents
Beautiful and rare.
In words you have a weapon
More mighty than a gun;
You can sway the multitude
Or stir the heart of one.

From *The Faith of Betty Scott Stam*, by Elizabeth Scott Stam.
By permission of Fleming H. Revell Company, Publishers.

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Words and How to Find Out About Them

The book of words. One Sunday, after listening to a very interesting sermon, Mark Twain said to the preacher, "That was an excellent sermon you gave us this morning. I have every word of it in a book in my library."

"In what book?" cried the indignant parson.

"I will send you a copy," replied Mark Twain.

The next morning a messenger delivered the book to the minister. He opened the package and found a copy of the dictionary.

And here on the desk is a copy of this valuable book. It tells the story of every word which we need, not only to make our own word pictures, but to understand the word pictures which others make for us. Before we begin to use it, however, we are going to play a game, and when we have finished the game, we shall be able to tell the first thing needed to find a word in the dictionary.

A DICTIONARY GAME

Here is a test to see how quickly you can arrange words in alphabetical order. Arrange the words below in alphabetical order and tell on what page they are in your dic-

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tionary. The one who first finishes the list correctly is the winner. *Ready, start!*

- | | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1. distinguish | 6. individual | 11. descriptive |
| 2. speech | 7. skills | 12. activity |
| 3. habits | 8. communicate | 13. presto |
| 4. civilization | 9. purpose | 14. ability |
| 5. acquire | 10. intelligent | 15. interpret |

Do you know your alphabet? You realize now, if you did not before, that the first important step in finding words in the dictionary is to know the *alphabet* so thoroughly that you do not have to hesitate in putting a letter in its proper place. Does *k* come before *h*? Does *v* come before *u*? The English alphabet consists of only twenty-six letters, but these twenty-six letters can form combinations too numerous to count.

A few things the dictionary tells us. How many of the fifteen words used in our dictionary game do you know so well that you can use them in sentences?

Let us open our dictionaries and work together on these fifteen words, all of which we have already met in the first chapter of our book. Let us find the sentence in Chapter I in which the word *ability* is used and see if we can explain its meaning in that sentence. Then let us look in the dictionary for the definition given there. Let us try to substitute another word whose meaning is the same or nearly the same as *ability*. Such a word is called a *synonym*. For example, *power* or *capacity* are synonyms for *ability*. But note that words often have more than one meaning and we must learn to choose the right one. We may have "ability, power, or capacity to do something," but we cannot substitute *ability*

HOW TO FIND OUT ABOUT WORDS

for *power* in a sentence which says, "The car has 80 horsepower," or in this sentence, "The *capacity* of the tank is 200 gallons." This possible confusion of meanings reminds us of the sick Frenchman who hopefully exclaimed, "I have such a cold in my *box*, but ze doctor gave me a *chest* of pills for it, and I shall be ready for ze *undertaker* tomorrow." (Of course, he meant for the *undertaking*!)

What else does the dictionary tell us? It shows us how to divide a word into syllables, how to spell it, how to pronounce it, what part of speech it is, from what language it is derived or where it came from, whether it is singular or plural. Sometimes there are two ways of spelling a word, both correct; for example, *theater* or *theatre*. Sometimes we find two or more ways to pronounce a word, for example, *advertisement*.

Use your dictionary. While the dictionary gives us a great deal of information, if we do not know how to interpret the facts that are given, the information is not very helpful to us. One of the things, for example, which the dictionary tells us about a word is how to pronounce it. Let us look up the word, *advertisement*. What does the dictionary tell us? It shows first the particular sound to use for the first letter *ă* by printing a mark over it. This is called a *diacritical mark* and in order to know how to say *ă* we look at the bottom of the page. There we find a key word *ădd*. The first syllable is *ăd*; the second syllable is *ver*, the key word for that *e* is *makér*; the third syllable is *tiz*, the key word for *i* is *ill*; the fourth syllable is *ment*, the key word for this *e* is *silent*. The vowels have more varied sounds than the

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consonants. If we look at the bottom of the page of our dictionary we see that there are eight ways of sounding the vowel *a*. There are two or more ways of sounding each of the other four vowels, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*. In fact, the *i* in *advertisement* is sometimes sounded like *i* in the key word *ice*.

The dictionary also tells us where to accent the word. In the *advertisement* a heavy accent mark over *ver* tells us to accent that syllable. However, the accent will fall on *tiz* when the *i* has the sound like *i* in *ice*, thus *adver-tise'ment*. We have noticed that *s* becomes *z* and that the *e* following the *s* is silent. It is permissible to write *advertisement* or *advertizement*.

There are several important dictionaries of the English language and they do not all use the same key words or the same diacritical marks, so we must be careful when we look up the pronunciation of a word. We must understand the plan of our dictionary.

Let us look back at the list of the fifteen words which we arranged in alphabetical order. Find how each is used in Chapter I and then let us look in the dictionary for all the information possible about each one of them.¹

The best way to increase our vocabulary is to learn a word when we see it. The dictionary will help us, among other things, to understand the meanings of new words. It will help us to increase our stock of words. Let us make it a rule in this course always to look up a word we do not know how to use.

Spelling bees can help us learn to spell. Perhaps you

¹ Look at the introduction at the front of the dictionary and see what you can find out there about pronunciation, spelling, and so on.

HOW TO FIND OUT ABOUT WORDS

have spelling bees in your school. If so, you know how important it is to pronounce words correctly in order to spell them right. In many cities the winners in the spelling bees in different schools receive, as rewards, dictionaries presented by one of the large newspapers. The newspaper realizes the importance of the knowledge of words and their correct use. Therefore, the newspaper wishes to encourage school children to use the dictionary. Imagine a reporter or an editorial writer who could not find words in which to tell his stories, or who breaks the rules of the language. Oh yes, every language has its own rules, just as every game has its rules. In order to play the game we must know the rules.

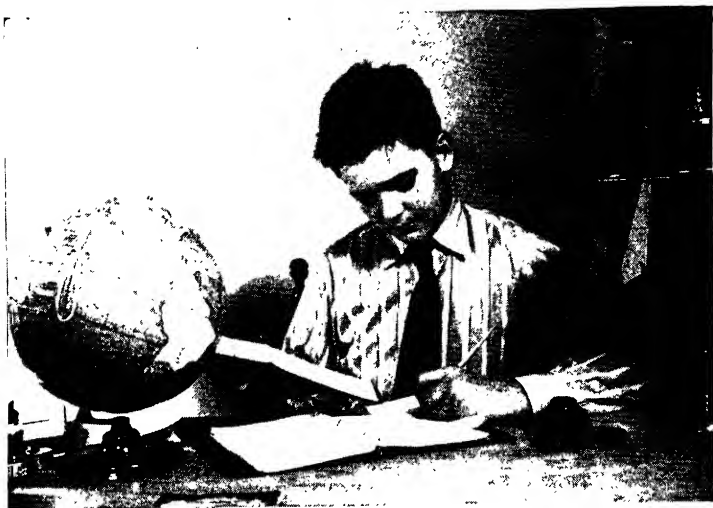
How to get complete information about words. The dictionary is the greatest storehouse of useful information in brief, definite, and accurate form. Sometimes, however, we want much more detailed information, and then we consult another reference book, for example, an encyclopedia. Next time you are in the library ask the librarian to show you an encyclopedia.

HOW TO USE BOOKS OF REFERENCE

Educated people do not pretend to be able to answer all questions, but they know how to find the answers to most of them. They know how to use reference books in the library.

Suppose a lawyer wants to find some information about *language*. He will consult books in the library. He knows how to use the index in a book. Do you

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Free-Lance Photographers Guild

This student is lucky: he has good tools to help him with his homework — a dictionary, a globe, and reference books.

know what *index* means? If not, look it up, because it is a useful word. Of course, the lawyer, who wants to read about language, does not need to use the index because he can look for the volume marked *L*, and under *L* he will find *language*; but the word occurs in other places in connection with English, French, Russian, and so forth, all listed in the index.

HOW TO PLAN A REPORT

How to report what we learn from reference books.

It is important to learn how to report what we find in reference books. When we want to make a report to our class on some topic that appeals to us, we take the following steps:

HOW TO FIND OUT ABOUT WORDS



Ewing Galloway

Just as an architect or builder must have a plan for his building before he can begin his work, so we need a plan for our composition.

First, we go to the library and ask for help in looking up material on the topic in reference books. We find that the *Book of Knowledge*, *Compton's Encyclopedia*, *The World Book Encyclopedia*, and other reference books all have material that we can use in our report.

Second, we read what others have said about the subject and pick out the part which we want to discuss.

Third, we take notes on the topic, adding our own experiences and opinions to the information which we obtain; and now we have something to say. *Having something to say is the first requisite of a writer.*

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Fourth, we build an outline which we expect to follow. Just as an architect or a builder must have a plan for his building before he can begin his work, so we need a plan for our composition. We have all seen the blueprints which architects use. The blueprint for a composition is called an *outline*. This is necessary in order that the composition be a well-arranged, complete unit which carries out the author's purpose. *An orderly arrangement of ideas is the second requisite of a writer.*

Fifth, using our notes and outlines, we write our report in detail, in our own words, and list our references. Whenever it is necessary to give the exact words of the book, we use quotation marks and give credit to the author or book, writing for example, " ' The scientists who study the earth believe that it is about 300,000,000 years old,' from *Story of Nations* by Rogers, Adams, and Brown, Henry Holt and Company, Inc."

Let us follow a member of the class as he takes the necessary steps to prepare a report.

Do not choose a topic for your report that is too broad. An outline will help you. A member of the class chooses for his report the topic " Names." Looking it up in the encyclopedia he finds several pages devoted to the subject. As he reads the material over, he finds that what is most interesting to him is the information about surnames, and so he decides to take that phase of the general topic of names as the subject of his talk to the class. He has in mind an outline like this upon which he is building:

HOW TO FIND OUT ABOUT WORDS

- I. Introduction
- II. Message
- III. Conclusion

How to make an outline for a written composition.
As he reads he takes notes, jotting down information which relates to his topic. In preparing to write his report, he reads over his notes, chooses the main points to be stressed, and under each he lists contributing ideas. This outline, or blueprint, represents definite information, and he arranges it in this way:

Title: Surnames

- I. Classification of names
 - A. Places
 - B. Persons
- II. History of surnames
 - A. Appearance in 12th Century
 - B. Use by nobility at first
 - C. Sources of surnames
 - 1. Residences
 - 2. Rank or occupations
 - 3. Family connections
 - 4. Personal characteristics
- III. Analysis of surnames of members in class

In the introductory section of this blueprint, or plan, he covers the general topic of names very briefly, just in order to show the place of surnames. In the body of the outline he covers all the facts directly related to the topic surnames. Then, from the information learned, he is able to discuss the origin and meaning of names of classmates. (This topic is one of the few that lend

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themselves to such a personal conclusion as the ending indicated here.) Following this outline and consulting his notes frequently, he writes his report.

How to make an outline for a talk. If, instead of writing his topic, the pupil expects to give his report orally, then his outline is most useful when he puts it in the sentence form, as follows:

- I. Names are classified in two groups:
 - A. Local, or names of places, are descriptive or historic or personal.
 - B. Personal names are of two kinds, given and surnames.
- II. Surnames have a long history.
 - A. They appeared as hereditary in Roman times.
 - B. They were used by the Normans but were confined to upper classes.
 - C. Sources from which surnames were derived are varied.
 1. Name of residence gave such names as *Wood*, *Lane*.
 2. The rank or occupation provided *Knight*, *Mayor*, *Miller*.
 3. Family relationships made *Richard*, *John's son* into *Richard Johnson*.
 4. Personal characteristics gave us such names as *Hardy*, *White*, *Goodwillie*.
- III. Surnames of members of the class are easy to trace.

In such an outline as this one above the facts are given briefly so that the pupil needs only to fill in additional examples in making this talk before the class.

A few good rules to remember. When he writes out his composition, it will have good form if he follows these suggestions:

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1. Capitalize the first word and each important word in the title.
2. Skip a line below the title.
3. Indent the first line about four fingers.
4. Keep an even margin of about two fingers on the left side of the paper.
5. Begin each sentence with a capital letter.
6. End each sentence with a period, exclamation point, or question mark.

Things as well as persons and places have names.

“The world is so full of a number of things, I’m sure we should all be happy as kings.” Let us stop for a minute and think about these *things* that should make us happy as kings. We have the love of our parents and friends; we have homes and all our possessions in them. We have fine schools and churches where we learn how to become useful and happy citizens, and we have a country filled with beautiful and wonderful things from the gigantic redwoods of the West to the cotton fields of the South. Each of these things must have a name, or we would not be able to speak of them. The names, by which we call things as well as people, are called *nouns*, and they are an interesting company, indeed. Some of these things can be seen, or heard, or touched, as *bird*, *tree*, *music*, *table*. But perhaps the most important of these wonderful things cannot be seen, or heard, or touched; such things as *kindness*, *honesty*, *liberty*, and *love*.

Why capital letters? We have seen that many nouns are always written with capital letters while others are not. Of course, there is a reason for honoring some words in this way, and we like to know the reason.

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Ewing Galloway

The Noah Webster House in Greenfield Village. Noah Webster was the famous author of Webster's Dictionary and Webster's *American Spelling Book*.

Examine the following sentences:

1. *Mr. Robertson* has invited the class to visit the huge bakery of the *Kroger Baking Company*.
2. *Greenfield Village* is a very interesting historical village showing what life was like in the early days of our country.
3. *Washington Irving* has preserved for us the days of early settlers around *Tarrytown* on the *Hudson*.

In the first sentence, Mr. Robertson is a particular person. The Kroger Baking Company is a particular bakery.

In the second sentence, Greenfield Village is a particular village and when we speak of it you know we mean that particular village and not any other.

In the third sentence, Washington Irving is a particular

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author, the Hudson is a special river, and Tarrytown means that town and no other.

These names of particular, that is, special, people or things are treated in a special way, they are always written with capital letters and are called *proper nouns*. The common nouns are names of a large group or class of people and things and are written with small letters.

THINGS TO DO

1. Supply a proper noun for each of the following common nouns:

Example: musician — Beethoven

school	radio	president	teacher	book
ship	automobile	state	mountain	song
newspaper	bridge	continent	street	lake

2. From the following list of words copy on a sheet of paper the proper nouns and begin each with a capital letter:

castle	evangeline	sioux	longfellow	avenue
yosemite	tribe	boulevard	heidi	church
house	senator	lecturer	paris	nevada
denmark	irish	duke	manager	chicago

3. Write ten sentences of your own using nouns found in Exercise 1 above. In five of the sentences, use *common nouns* and in the remaining five, use *proper nouns*.

Note: We capitalize the words *lord* and *god* only when they refer to the one God whom we worship. Example:

1. We should follow in the way of the *Lord* our *God*.
2. People in ancient times worshipped many gods.

Certain words serve to mark individuality. How can we use a common noun so that it will name a particular thing? For instance, the mere word *house* is not going to help you to find where your doctor lives. If there

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are twenty houses in the same block, many of them the same color and the same in general appearance, we look for particular marks to distinguish them. The yellow house with the red roof, or the gray house with the blue roof, or the gray house with the blue roof and blue shutters have an individuality; that is, something that



makes them different from the other houses. We all have some characteristics which make us different from other people. Whatever the differences may be, they are the marks of our individualities.

Let us try an experiment on ourselves.

Someone says, "House." We get the sound and each one of us interprets or grasps the meaning. The word *house* makes a picture in our minds. Let us find out just what each one of us sees in his mind's eye. Let us look at the picture of the house in the center of the circle and decorate and describe our house. The house in the circle is just any house, but we each think of it as my house or your house. Maybe it is red brick, maybe white or yellow frame. Maybe it has a red roof or a green roof. Is it small or large, old or new? Every time we add a distinguishing mark we remove the house from the big circle and limit it to a smaller place. We have described it until it has an individuality which separates it from other houses. Words used to describe

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or limit are called *adjectives*. Why are such words valuable or necessary?

Try this same experiment with *dog* in the center of a circle and let us see what we get.

It is important to use the right words. Now we see that we can make pictures with words. The beauty and clarity of our picture will depend on the words we use. It is just as important to use the right words for our pictures as to wear the right clothes to a party or to play. Boys do not play football in their best suits and girls do not wear party dresses when they go hiking. There is a time and a place for everything. There is a right word and a right way to use it for every need.

THINGS TO DO

Place numbers on a sheet of paper corresponding to the numbers of the following sentences. After each number write the *nouns* found in the sentence.

1. The school was attended by boys and girls from the nearby farms.
2. A man has to study many years to become a doctor.
3. Seals, for signing letters, were made of clay, bone, or stone, and were the size of a man's finger.
4. The Roman artists copied many things from the Greeks.
5. They made statues of their leaders.
6. Slaves did the work for many people.
7. Many citizens were storekeepers, clerks, artists, sculptors, doctors, potters, and metal workers.
8. Wise people obey the laws that their leaders have made.
9. The Egyptians cut stone from the earth and built tombs, temples, and pyramids with it.
10. Early man thought about the rain, the wind, the snow, the lightning, the thunder, and the seasons.

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11. A band of fierce people once lived in the far northern part of Europe.

12. The telephone is a marvelous invention.

Use one of the following adjectives to describe one or more of the nouns used above:

high	ancient
good	different
bright	large
popular	skilled
clever	useful

TEST YOURSELF

Men of the World

Since we are living in the world today, we should be familiar with the men and women who are active in the affairs of our country. See how many of the following names you know. Do not write in your book; use a sheet of paper. A good score shows that you are wide awake to the radio and newspapers.

1. The President of the United States is —
2. The governor of our state is —
3. The mayor of our city is —
4. The Chief Justice of the United States is —
5. The superintendent of our schools is —
6. A popular screen star is —
7. A clever radio comedian is —
8. One of our greatest musicians is —
9. A well known automobile manufacturer is —
10. One of the most interesting news commentators is —

Did you notice that the names you supplied in the above sentences were always found in the complete predicates? You probably observed, too, that the name you filled in meant the same as the subject of the sentence. In 1, for instance, the name that you inserted and *president* are the

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same person. We call such a word a *predicate noun*. You have used these predicate nouns in each sentence. They are easy to recognize because the predicate noun always means the same as, or indicates, the subject.

Sometimes there is a word in the predicate that describes the subject. For example: The girls are *happy*. The adjective *happy* describes and refers to the girls. Such an adjective, naturally, is called a *predicate adjective*. Pick out the predicate nouns and predicate adjectives in the following sentences and make a list of them on a sheet of paper.

1. *Robinson Crusoe* is an interesting story.
2. Julius Caesar was a famous general.
3. A knowledge of language is a great help.
4. Louis XIV was king of France.
5. Careless drivers will be sorry.
6. The capital of France is Paris.
7. Italy is a beautiful country.
8. The German language is not very difficult.
9. Kind-hearted people are usually popular.
10. Good students will probably be successful.

THINGS TO DO

1. Make two columns on a sheet of paper and label them:
 - a. Things that may be seen, heard, or touched.
 - b. Things that are not seen, heard, or touched.Try to list about 25 nouns in each column.
2. It will be real fun to make a "Noun Scrapbook" from magazines. Cut out colored pictures of things or people. Paste the pictures into a book neatly and print under each its name.
3. Make a list of all nouns used in Exercise 1 on page 51. Then enlarge your vocabulary by writing opposite each word one or more words that describe or limit it.
4. If you are interested in proper names, find out where

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yours came from or list the names of members of your class and find out what they mean. Look in the dictionary for help in doing this.

5. Look at a map of your city and see what names are used for the streets. Find out how these names came to be used. Consult a history of your city for help.

6. In Detroit there are hotels and apartment houses and streets named Cadillac, Savoy, Lorraine, Piquette, St. Clair, Frontenac, Touraine, Lafayette, Normandie. Where do you think these names came from? How could you find out?

7. How do you think men would determine upon the names for streets in a new section of your city? You could find out by consulting a real estate firm.

SOME QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. Just what does "dictionary" mean?
2. How many facts about one word can you find in the dictionary?
3. Who was Mark Twain? Tell something about him.
4. How many letters are there in the English alphabet?
5. How many combinations of sound can we make with twenty-six letters of the English alphabet?
6. Why are the letters in our alphabet arranged in a certain order?
7. Can you give the alphabet in order?
8. Would it be of any use to know the alphabet so well that you could say it backwards?
9. How should we turn the pages of a dictionary? Explain your answer.
10. Look at any page of your dictionary and note the two words in black print at the top of each page. These words are called guide words. Can you explain the use of the guide words? Learn to use them. They will save you much time.

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11. How can you increase the speed with which you find words in the dictionary?

12. Do you know what is meant by *abbreviation*? Look it up and name some common abbreviations.

13. Do you know the meanings of the abbreviations, A.M., P.M., *i.e.*, and *P.S.*? How can you find what they mean?

14. Have you ever heard the following words used: *post mortem*, *alumnus*, *alias*, *in memoriam*, *bona fide*? How can you find their meanings? Can you use them in sentences?

15. What is the best test of our knowing a word?

16. What is the difference in meaning between *sub'ject* and *subject*?

17. Is there any difference in the meaning of the *itali-cized* words in the two following sentences:

a. He gave a fine *address* at the banquet.

b. He gave me his card with his *address* on it.

18. Name some helpful reference books in our library.

19. What is meant by a *topic*?

20. What is a *report*?

21. Give three meanings for the word *article*.

ACTIVITIES

1. Using the dictionary as a guide, divide the following words into syllables: *separately*, *valuable*, *illustrate*, *communities*, *interesting*.

2. Show how to pronounce the five words above by using diacritical marks.

3. Indicate the correct accent of the following words: contest (noun), democracy, demonstrate, demonstration, subject (verb), democratic, indicate, indication.

4. Show that you know the five words in the first sentence above by using them in sentences.

5. You have already learned how to use your dictionary.

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Now make a list of all the nouns you found in the exercise on page 53. See how quickly you can arrange them in alphabetical order.

6. Begin a miniature dictionary of your own. Write a simple meaning for the new words you meet which are interesting and useful. Make an attractive cover with cut-out letters. A title page similar to the one in your dictionary would make your book more personal.

7. Look up one of the following topics in two or more reference books:

- a. Mother Tongue
- b. Speech
- c. Origin of Language
- d. Signs
- e. Names
- f. Words

8. Keep a notebook record of all the new words learned in this course.

9. Collect pictures, clippings, and stories suggested by the regular class work.

10. The first topic for outside reading might be "Primitive Man." The reports might include the following:

- a. How Fire Was Discovered
- b. Language of Stone Age Man
- c. Tree Dwellers of Long Ago
- d. Lake Dwellers
- e. Tools and Weapons of Early Man
- f. Religion of Earliest People
- g. Women of Cave Days

Abbreviations Used in the Dictionary

Below are a few abbreviations used commonly in dictionaries which will help us to understand what we find out about words we look up.

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<i>adj.</i>	adjective	<i>Lat.</i>	Latin	<i>Dan.</i>	Danish
<i>adv.</i>	adverb	<i>n.</i>	noun	<i>F.</i>	French
<i>ant.</i>	antonym	<i>pl.</i>	plural	<i>Ger.</i>	German
<i>A-S</i>	Anglo-Saxon	<i>pron.</i>	pronoun	<i>p. p.</i>	past participle
<i>conj.</i>	conjunction	<i>p. t.</i>	past tense	<i>p. pr.</i>	present participle
<i>D.</i>	Dutch	<i>sing.</i>	singular	<i>prep.</i>	preposition
<i>Gr.</i>	Greek	<i>syn.</i>	synonym	<i>v. i.</i>	intransitive verb
<i>interj.</i>	interjection	<i>Sp.</i>	Spanish	<i>v. t.</i>	transitive verb
<i>It.</i>	Italian	<i>v.</i>	verb		

BOOKS TO READ

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- Goldberg, Isaac. *The Wonder of Words*. D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1938.
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- Mencken, H. L. *The American Language*. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1937.
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- The Oxford Dictionary of English*. 1933 edition.
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G. and C. Merriam Company, Springfield, Mass., 1935.

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The World Book Encyclopedia. Dictionary. (Vol. D.)

How People First Began to Exchange Ideas

Can there be language without words? An American traveler in China, tired and hungry, entered a Chinese restaurant; not being able to speak Chinese, he pointed to his mouth and made the motion of chewing to show that he wanted something to eat. After a while the owner of the restaurant placed before him a dishful of something which looked like meat stew. The American sniffed it, wondering what it was made of, and turning to the Chinese said, "Quack, quack?" The Chinese shook his head slowly and said, "Bow-wow."

Let us see if this story can help us to get some idea of how language began thousands and thousands of years ago. Of course, nobody knows how old human speech is. We can only guess what life was like in those far-away days before there were any records; that is, written accounts of facts and events.

Some men believe that signs and gestures were the first form of language. Sometimes, perhaps, the gestures were accompanied by sounds, such as grunts and growls, maybe also by *ah's*, *oh's*, *ee's*, or with sounds like those of animals. A dog uses both signs and sounds which are easily understood by other dogs and by men. When the dog barks at our door we know he wants to

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come in. When we open the door he bounds in joyously wagging his tail to show his gratitude and friendliness. His bark is not always the same, and his growl is a warning to keep away. But with all that the dog can tell us by means of sounds and signs, he cannot put together the human sounds necessary to say in so many words: "Keep out of this yard!" Some animals, such as the parrot, can imitate human sounds well enough to say, "Polly wants a cracker." But the parrot cannot take your question, "When will your master be home?" interpret it, and answer it by saying, "He'll be home at five o'clock."

Some things we have learned from unwritten history. What animals lack is the kind of brain that man has. Man can use his brain to think and to reason. It is this power which has carried man forward and upward throughout the ages. He began to reason with himself, saying something like this: "I am cold. I need something like the bear's skin to cover me and warm me." Then man thought about it and later said to himself: "I must knock down the bear and pull off his skin and put it on." Life was very hard in those faraway days when fierce beasts much stronger than man roamed all over the earth. Man realized that either the beasts would kill him or he would have to kill the beasts. He was forced to fight constantly for his very existence or perish.

How do we know that early man killed animals and wore skins? Scientists have pieced together bit by bit the story of man's early life on earth by means of cave drawings, and by tools and weapons found in burial

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places with the remains of human bones. In this way, modern scholars are able to tell us much about how early man lived, how he dressed, and what he looked like.

In the earliest times man was awed by the grandeur of the sun. Just picture the sun striking the snow-capped mountain peaks in early spring, bringing with it the promise of warmth, light, and renewed life in field and forest. We can easily realize how the beauty and power of the sun would so overwhelm early man that he had to find words to express his feelings. Here is a poem transcribed from the language of the Zuni American Indians showing their idea of the protective strength of the sun.

INVOCATION TO THE SUN-GOD

(Zuni Indian)

Grant, O Sun-god, thy protection!
Guard this helpless infant sleeping.
Grant, O Sun-god, thy protection!
Guard this helpless infant sleeping.
Resting peaceful, resting peaceful.
Starry guardians forever watchful.
Grant, O Sun-god, thy protection!
Guard this helpless infant sleeping.
Spirit living, Spirit resting.
Guard us, lead us, aid us, love us.
Sun-god forever, Spirit living, Spirit resting.
Guard us, lead us, love us,
Sun-god forever.

— Carlos Troyer

Theodore Presser Company, Publishers

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Courtesy of the Bureau of American Ethnology

Indian Sun Dancer

The overpowering feeling of the mysterious forces of nature led early man to worship the Supreme Being who controlled his entire world.

It was necessary for man to have spoken and written languages to get ahead. Do you know the story of "Chantecler," the cock who believed that when he crowed, day came and the sun rose? Imagine his shock and surprise when he overslept one morning and the sun came up before he crowed! The cock just could not understand the forces of nature. Neither could early man understand the changes of the seasons, or of day and night. But he was curious and he wanted to

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find out. Curiosity may have "killed a cat," as the saying goes, but it has made man ask "why" and "how," just as children do today, to find out the reasons for things. We think that man has found pretty good answers to a great many questions.

We all know the story of Robinson Crusoe and his man Friday. Robinson Crusoe did not live so many years ago, of course, but the fact that he was shipwrecked and forced to find for himself shelter and food and clothing makes his experience much like the experiences of early man. We know how lonesome he was and how eagerly he welcomed Friday. At first they could only communicate by gestures. But gestures were not enough to express fully their thoughts. There are so many ideas that cannot be expressed by gestures that they felt the need of words.

The invention of a spoken language was difficult and slow. When the human race first began to make speech sounds, progress was very slow. Man had the ability to make sounds, but he did not know how to make very many of them. He was just like the baby who cannot make many sounds at first, but who has the ability to learn.

The baby begins by crying, cooing, and babbling; later he imitates the sounds made by people near him. He does not succeed so well in the beginning. He does not know how to produce meaningful words. He mixes sounds. He mispronounces words. He does not have a very clear idea of what he is trying to do. He likes to practice and he keeps on trying to make sounds like the ones he hears. He loves to repeat the same sounds again

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G. A. Douglas from Gendreau

“Nice doggie.” “No. Nice kitty.”

and again. After a while not only his mother, who watches his every word with loving attention, but other people who are not with him so much begin to recognize in his sounds some approach to real words. At first he does not make sentences or express complete thoughts, he simply uses words without necessarily knowing their meanings. When he wants a drink of water, he simply says, “Wawa,” and usually he gets what he wants or he lets you know his disappointment in no uncertain terms.

How we learn to associate words with ideas. If we say to a baby, “Nice doggie,” it means nothing to him

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at first, but we pat the dog and help the baby to pat the dog and the baby likes the experience. We keep repeating, "Nice doggie," and the words come to have a meaning for the baby. We have given the baby a meaning for "Nice doggie." But the meaning is not very definite yet. We can show the baby a cat, pet it, and the baby will say, "Nice doggie." Then we shall have to say, "No. Nice kitty!"

We see how long it takes a baby to realize that a furry animal that he can pet is not always a dog.

The fact is we have to name, or label, or tag a thing very accurately to keep it distinct from some other thing when we talk about it.

We have learned that words which name persons, places, or things are called *nouns* in English. These groups of words are also found in other languages besides English. Let us see them in French, German, Spanish, and Italian.

<i>English</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>German</i>	<i>Spanish</i>	<i>Italian</i>
mother	mère	Mutter	madre	madre
house	maison	Haus	casa	casa
tree	arbre	Baum	árbol	albero

Ewing Galloway



Gendreau



Saunders from Monkeneye



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You already know thousands of *nouns* in English; when you begin to study a foreign language, you will need to group many words under the heading of *nouns*.

Why are there many languages? Mankind speaks many different languages. The people in France speak French, those in Italy speak Italian, those in China speak Chinese. There are in the world more than a thousand different languages which have been developed by the human race during thousands and thousands of years. Man has had to develop language to fit his needs and to express his thoughts. Today the child learns in the first few years of his life much of the language that it has taken men all these ages to produce.

How do word sounds convey thoughts from the speaker to the one who listens? Let us consider what the chief purpose of language is. Think again about Helen Keller and her empty, lonesome life before she learned to use language. When we ask a question and somebody answers it, we two are exchanging thoughts, we are communicating. That is the chief purpose of language: to communicate thought. Let us look at the different steps in this process. I have an idea. I utter one or more sounds which combine to produce a word or words. These sounds strike the eardrum of someone who is listening. Nerves like tiny telephone wires carry the sounds from his eardrum to his brain. His brain combines the sounds into the word or words which mean something to him; that is, he understands what he hears. However, he may hear sounds which I make, but they may mean nothing to him, because he has not previously learned their meanings.

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The speaker and the listener must be able to associate the same ideas with the same words if they are to understand each other. Let us go back to our story of the American traveler in the Chinese restaurant.

There is not a bit of resemblance between the Chinese and the English languages, but in some respects human beings are much the same all over the world. *They have to eat and drink.* The Chinese could understand the gesture made by the American to show that he wanted food. He was even clever enough to understand the meaning of "Quack, quack," because ducks make a sound in China similar to the sound they make in America. Dogs make a sound like "Bow-wow." Animals can produce only a few sounds and they are nearly the same everywhere. How different it is in the case of man! Man can produce many different sounds and combine them into groups of sounds making words and sentences which have meaning in one language but make no sense in another. Sounds alone, however, do not make a language. Sounds must have a meaning attached to them, and that meaning must be known not only to the one who utters the sounds, but also to the one who hears them, otherwise there can be very little exchange of thought.

Suppose I say to you, "Schoenes Wetter heute, nicht wahr?" Perhaps you are not able to grasp my thought. You do not understand my language. The sounds I produced failed to carry any message to you, whereas, if I say, "It's a fine day, isn't it?" you immediately grasp my thought, because the sounds are familiar to you. Maybe you answer by a nod which we both understand

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to mean that you agree with me. I expressed the same thought in German in my first remark, but the sounds were meaningless to you, unless you happened to understand German.

Although the American traveler and the Chinese did not know each other's languages, they were able to communicate with each other by means of gestures, signs, and certain familiar sounds. However, they were not able to say very much to each other because they had very little speech in common. The American probably wanted to say that it is not customary to eat dog in America. The Chinese probably wanted to ask why the American, who pretended to be hungry, pushed aside the good stew. What the Chinese said to himself in his own language was probably something like this, translated into English, "Man hunger not food eat question," which we would express by saying, "The man is hungry, here is food, why doesn't he eat?"

Chinese and English are very different languages, but each language serves the same purpose. Each is a means of communication.

We cannot think clearly without language. Just as you think in English and communicate your thoughts in English, so the Chinese think in Chinese and communicate their thoughts in Chinese. Everyone thinks his thoughts in his own language. This is the second important fact about language: it is necessary to thought. We cannot think without language. If you do not believe this, try to think the following thought without language: "If I save my money now, I can use it when I go to college."

EARLY EXCHANGE OF IDEAS

Wherever we find man, whether it be in an Eskimo igloo or in an African hut, we find him able to speak some language. A child learns the speech of the community into which he is born. An American child born in China, however, would probably speak English because he would hear English in his home. Maybe the child playing with Chinese children would gradually learn to express himself in that language. It is easy to learn a foreign language when you are young. Remember how quickly the little Pilgrim children learned Dutch in Holland. In just a short time parents could not understand their own children, who were learning Dutch faster than English. That was one reason why the Pilgrim fathers wanted to find new homes in far-away America, where they could use their own language, English.

There are many families in our country who speak a foreign language at home, but in school and in business most of us speak English. That is the language which we need to know and which we should be able to use correctly.

WORD STUDY

1. The words listed below were used in this chapter. Are there any that we do not understand? Could we use them in sentences other than the ones in which they are here used? Let us try it.

- | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|----------------|
| a. records | f. overwhelm | k. customary |
| b. gestures | g. meaningful | l. familiar |
| c. inscription | h. mispronounce | m. achievement |
| d. scientist | i. communicate | n. signal |
| e. appearance | j. gradually | o. interpret |

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2. The same word is often used in different ways. Use the word *signal* as:

- a. a noun
- b. a verb
- c. an adjective

Look at the words *records* and *gestures* and tell how to use each of them as:

- a. a noun
- b. a verb

3. The meaning of a word is determined by the other words with which it is combined in a sentence; that is, by the context. This is an important thing to remember because it will help us in our understanding of words. When we look up a word in the dictionary, we find many meanings for the word according to the use made of it. Let us take the word *press* and see what it may mean.

- a. He *pressed* his elbow into my ribs until they hurt.
- b. Mother *pressed* the juice out of the oranges.
- c. The tailor *pressed* my coat.
- d. The lover *pressed* his suit for the hand of the girl.
- e. The jockey *pressed* the horse to win the race.
- f. The public *press* is full of his brave deeds.
- g. In the *press* of business he forgot to telephone us.
- h. The newspaper goes to *press* at midnight.
- i. This is a *pressing* matter.
- j. Every man in the neighborhood was *pressed* into service to hunt down the escaped criminal.

In each of the ten sentences, we find that the meaning of *press* is determined by the way it is used. It may be a noun, but even then it can have more than one meaning. As a verb it can have many meanings. This is true of many words. Meanings change with time and usage; for instance, fifty years ago *car* did not mean an automobile; *bridge* did not mean a game of cards; *typist* did not mean a person using a typewriter. Why not?

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HELPS FOR USING ENGLISH

Why do we need to know how our language is made up and how it works? It is not our purpose here to study the grammar that is needed in order to understand and to use language correctly. We shall merely try to explain some of the most important things that will help us to express ourselves better and to understand more easily what others say.

Just as we are able to drive an automobile without knowing much about its parts, and how they work, we may understand English sentences without knowing the parts of which they are constructed. But a good driver wants to know the mechanics, that is, the practical workings of his car, so that he will be able to get the most use with the least wear and tear. In like manner, we need to know how our language is made up and how it works in order to make the best possible use of it.

A word may be used in many different ways. Sentences, as we know, are made of words. The same word is not always used in the same way, as we have seen. For example, let us look at the following uses of the word *run*:

1. Mary has a *run* in her stocking.
2. Father has had a *run* of good luck.
3. Our captain made another home *run*.
4. The children had the *run* of the place.
5. Do not *run* so fast.
6. He knows how to *run* the machine.
7. The Senator will *run* for a new term.
8. Mine-*run* coal is six dollars a ton.

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If someone says that *run* is a verb or an action word, we agree with him. But not always is *run* a verb. In the first four sentences above, *run* is certainly not used as an action word, in fact it is used as a *noun* or the name of something. In sentences 5, 6, and 7, *run* is the action word, but its meanings are different. In sentence 8, *run* is used as an adjective, or a descriptive word.

The French and English languages are not constructed alike. Just suppose a French family moved in next door and a boy about your age smiled pleasantly and said something to you in French and you would like to answer courteously. For example, you say, "Don't you want to get into the car and ride down to the store with me?" You realize that you will say most of it by gestures, but there are some words in the sentence that will have a familiar sound to the French boy's ear. *Get*, *car*, and *store* sound like three French words: *guette* — *lie in wait for*, *car* — *for*, *store* — *window-shade*. Therefore, your French boy will try to imagine your meaning from the only words that sound familiar. It is not hard to see what a queer sentence yours seems to him.

Why not try to teach our French neighbor exactly what you said? He would be very grateful, and in return he would soon show you how to say the same thing in French, "Ne voulez-vous pas monter dans l'auto et m'accompagner au magasin?" To this question the French boy might reply, "Avec plaisir." He might go on to say, "Vous conduisez très bien! Moi, je ne peux pas conduire, mon père ne me le permet pas." Then

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it would be your turn to guess. Would you hear any familiar sounds? Maybe you would get the meaning, but you should be able to see the look of admiration in the French boy's eyes, and suspect the unspoken wish that he too might be permitted to drive.

Why do we classify or label words? It is especially when we want to explain words and their uses that we find it convenient to classify our words, or give them a label. So now we are going to label words according to their use, and we find that there are eight classes or parts of speech. Some of them we already know and a few of them are new to us.

Learn them if you like. If you are interested in finding out about them, look at the following list which is given here for reference only.

PARTS OF SPEECH

For Reference

The eight parts of speech are: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

A *noun* is the name of a person, place, thing, or quality.

Example: *Mary* dropped her *book*.
John saw the *girl* run.

A *pronoun* is a word that takes the place of a noun.

Example: *She* dropped *it*.
He saw *her* run.

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An *adjective* is a word that limits, describes, or modifies a noun or pronoun.

Example: John is a *bright* boy.
Mary is a *small* girl.
She is *pretty*.

A *verb* is a word which says or states something about a person or thing.

Example: I *ran* across the street.
The car *stopped*.
The road *is* narrow.

An *adverb* is a word which modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

Example: The car stopped *suddenly*.
He was *very* sorry.
He was driving *too rapidly*.

A *preposition* is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some other word, and to form with it a modifying phrase.

Example: Give me your box *of* pens and pencils.
He lives *in* the city.

A *conjunction* is a word used to connect clauses, phrases, or words.

Example: John *and* Richard would like to go, *but* they must study.

An *interjection* is a word used as a sudden expression of feeling, but not forming part of a sentence.

Example: *Oh!* I am so glad I came.

EARLY EXCHANGE OF IDEAS

We have now had just a glimpse of the parts of speech which make up the English language. The better we know them and their uses the better we shall be able to understand language in general. for all languages have some form of grammar.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. When did man first begin to use language?
2. What would be the reason for using sounds and gestures together?
3. Can people in different parts of the world understand each other's language?
4. Have you ever heard the word *onomatopoeia*? Look it up in the dictionary.
5. What kind of words are: *quack-quack*, *bow-wow*, *moo*, *buzz*, *hiss*, *meow*?
6. What kind of words are: *bang*, *thud*, *splash*, *whizz*?
7. Are dogs able to speak? Explain your answer.
8. How does parrots' speech differ from yours?
9. What do you consider man's greatest achievement? Give reasons for your answer.
10. What do we mean by "speech-community"?
11. An idea takes form in the mind before it is put into definite words. How did James Watt discover the driving power of steam? How did he develop his idea?
12. How have we learned about the earliest men and how they lived?
13. If you were shipwrecked and thrown on an island where wild men lived, how would you try to talk to them?
14. You have surely read the story of Robinson Crusoe and his man Friday. You recall how Robinson and Friday began to communicate. Describe how they first made their meaning clear to each other. Why did they use gestures only?

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15. Do you know the difference between a gesture and a sign?

16. Why was Robinson not satisfied with gestures as a means of communication?

17. What is a *pantomime*? Where can you find out?

18. How many gestures can you think of?

19. How many signs can you tell us about?

20. Why do you suppose that the forces of nature made such a powerful impression on man long ago?

21. How do you suppose people lived in early days?

22. How does a baby learn to talk?

23. Explain how we exchange ideas.

24. Why could the Chinese restaurant owner mentioned at the beginning of this chapter understand what the American traveler wanted?

25. Why were gestures not enough to ask and answer the question about the contents of the stew?

26. Why could the Chinese restaurant keeper not understand the American's behavior?

27. What are the chief purposes of language?

ACTIVITIES

1. Act out the story of the American traveler and the Chinese.

2. Retell the story of Robinson Crusoe. Form a committee and divide the story into parts.

3. Prepare a series of easy lessons in English that Robinson might have used to teach Friday his language.

4. Have some member of the class who knows another language give the class a lesson in it.

5. Make some gestures and ask the rest of the class to tell what they mean.

6. List numerous signals.

7. Make posters showing signals used by Boy Scouts.

8. Make an onomatopoeia chart.

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9. Make a model or a drawing showing how early man lived.

10. Make copies or drawings of tools and weapons used by early man.

11. Watch a baby learning to speak and keep a record for a future report.

12. Ask your art teacher to help you to make murals showing how early man lived.

13. Make a scrap book containing pictures taken from newspapers and magazines showing people in action or making gestures or signs. Be sure to write a short explanation under each picture.

14. Ask your chairman to divide the class into groups to make posters for an exhibit. There may be: (1) an Art Committee for lettering and arrangement, (2) a Composition Committee, and (3) an Illustration Committee. Meetings may be held at which leaders ask for help and suggestions. Every pupil in the class takes part.

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Each Language Is a Law Unto Itself

=====

When does nonsense make sense? When we meet a person whom we know only slightly, we say quite formally, "How do you do?" Let us look at that question for a moment. The word *how* asks the way or manner, as if we said, "How do you like your coffee, black, or with cream and sugar?" Then the next word is *do*. That indicates action; you *do* something, but here I merely ask, "How do you do?" and a foreigner would have every reason to ask "Do what?" So, the question, "How do you do?" is really nonsense if we pick it to pieces, word for word, but we all use it daily and understand that it means, "How do you feel?" That is the customary way of asking the question in English. It is good usage in English. In fact, the meaning of a word or group of words is generally determined by the context in which it appears; that is, the combination with other words affects the meaning.

The Frenchman, on the other hand, says, "Comment vous portez-vous?" which means, "How do you carry yourself?" You may be amused and tempted to say, "I do not need to carry myself; I can stand on my two feet." That greeting is good usage in French; it is the polite way of asking, "How do you do?" in French.

A LAW UNTO ITSELF



Ewing Galloway

“How do you do?”

The German, however, asks, “Wie befinden Sie sich?” It really means, “How do you find yourself?” You may feel like replying, “Well, I have not lost myself.” But that is the German way of asking, “How do you do?” It is good usage in German.

Courtesy is the same no matter what language we use, but the words in which it is expressed depend upon the pattern used in the particular language, which may be very different from another, just as the pattern of Mary’s dress is not like that of Susie’s.

Each language has its rules for making meanings clear. What is right in one language may be wrong in another. We do not play baseball with football rules.

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Such a mixup would certainly make a very queer game. We have to follow the rules of the game, which were made so that we might all play the same game in the same way. When we use English, we also have to follow the rules of the language, and when we use any other language, we find different rules, which all help us to use the language and to understand it.

Take a good look at the following words: "The lights the father on switch and turned went." What is the matter with the idea contained in these words? Are there any words you do not know? Of course not, but that is not the way we make a sentence in English. It is contrary to all usage. We cannot throw a lot of words into a hat and shake them up and pick them out in a haphazard way and expect to have a sentence or a complete thought which all of us can understand. We have very definite rules for our English sentences.

What can the above words be made to say by a change in their order? Work it out for yourself.

Complete sentences give us complete thoughts. Let us now talk about sentences for a while. Perhaps one of the best ways to find out more about sentences is to decide first what a sentence is.

Take the three words *man*, *tiger*, *kills*. The way they are used will show how they are related to each other. There is one action word or verb (*kills*), but two names of things, or nouns (*man* and *tiger*). To make a complete thought, we must say or ask something about someone or something or tell someone to do something; hence, we need a verb or an action word in a complete thought.

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With our three words, we find that we can say, "Man kills tiger," or "Tiger kills man." That word *kills* must be used to show the action. But besides the action word or verb, which we call the *predicate*, there must be someone or something that does the action; this we call the *subject*. Either the *man* kills or the *tiger* kills.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

The Right Man in the Right Job

Every complete sentence has a subject and a predicate. In days of unemployment, we find many men working at tasks which they dislike or for which they are not trained. Notice what the people below are doing, take a piece of paper, and try to put each worker in the right place by combining the words in Column II with those in Column I.

I	II
1. The elderly doctor	cooked a delicious meal.
2. The skilled carpenter	sold fresh vegetables.
3. The bold lawyer	ordered the army to advance.
4. The French chef	
5. Four strong movers	fired the advertising manager.
6. The happy Italian peddler	built our garage.
7. The gruff general	arrested the criminal.
8. Our editor	pleaded in court.
9. The policeman and the detective	delivered the letters.
10. The postman	brought in the new piano.
	cured the sick child.

Did you give each man the proper job? If so, you are a good manager.

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If you will notice the above sentences carefully, you will see that each is divided into two different parts. On the left is the *doer* of the action with the words that describe him. The doer is called the *subject* of the sentence. On the right side are the words that tell what the subject is doing. These words form the *predicate* of the sentence.

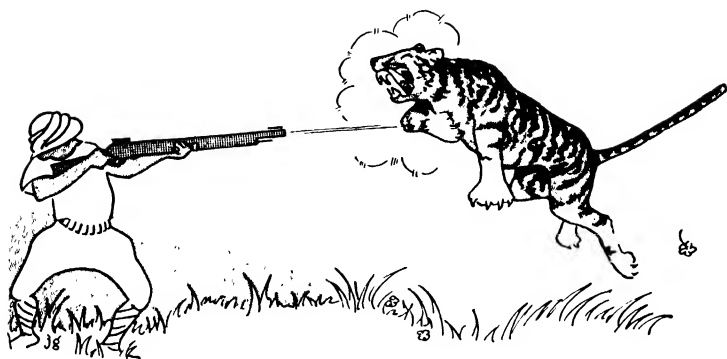
Remember that the *complete subject* includes the word about which something is said and all its modifiers,¹ while the *complete predicate* includes the verb and all its modifiers. Pick out the complete subject and the complete predicate in the following sentences:

1. A man jumped from a trapeze into a net.
2. We drove over the hills to the schoolhouse.
3. The boys and girls laughed and cried.
4. Half of the men on our team quit.
5. With what weapons will the angry duke fight?

Nouns are often modified by articles. A complete thought contains a subject and a verb, and is called a *sentence*. But a sentence may contain more than a subject and a verb. The subject may be modified by another word, for example, by *a*, as in the first sentence above, or by *the*, as in the third sentence above. We call *a* the indefinite article, because we are not indicating any definite person or thing. We call *the* the definite article because it includes a definite person or thing.

¹ A modifier is a word that adds something to the picture that you have. For example: "A large, shaggy-haired dog" gives you a much clearer picture than the word *dog* alone. In the same way, we might say, "The tiger leaped suddenly from the bush." The word *suddenly* adds force to the picture of the tiger's action.

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“The man kills a tiger.”

Many verbs have direct objects. Also we may have more than one noun in a sentence, as in, “The man kills a tiger.” In this sentence we have not only named the action and the person who does it, but we tell who or what receives the action. We ask ourselves, “What does the man kill?” and the answer is, “A tiger.” The receiver of the action expressed by the verb is called the *direct object*.

Copy the following sentences and test yourself. Underline the complete subject, double underline the complete predicate.

1. My father and mother are expecting me.
2. Our soldiers defeated the enemy's force.
3. He was a leader of leaders.
4. With these words the officer warned the driver.
5. By means of a clever plan his mother saved him.
6. After a few years he returned.
7. The pretty baby with the pink sunbonnet smiled.
8. Wash your teeth carefully.
9. To Neptune he gave the kingdom of the sea.
10. Hard-working men deserve credit.

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DIRECT OBJECT

Know Your Business

Nowadays we select our future professions early and plan our education accordingly. Do you know what the following men do? Tell what each takes care of.

1. Florists sell
2. Lawyers plead
3. Doctors cure
4. Postmen deliver
5. Teachers instruct
6. Chauffeurs drive
7. Typists operate
8. Artists paint
9. Bakers bake
10. Mechanics fix

Can you tell the direct object of a verb when you see it? We have completed each of the above sentences with the name of something that was acted upon or which received the action that passed over from the doer, the subject, to the receiver. Remember that we call this receiver of the action or the thing that is acted upon a *direct object*.

TEST YOURSELF

Can you pick out the direct object in the following sentences?

1. The hunters caught the animals.
2. Eskimos eat blubber.
3. The tourists saw Niagara Falls.
4. He wrote a complete sentence.

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5. The pupils study their lessons.
6. The merchant sold good food.
7. Architects plan and build houses.
8. Sammy likes good books.
9. John will write a letter about a model airplane.
10. Scientists found the bones of prehistoric men in the caves of southern France.

THINGS TO DO

Name the subject and the direct object in the following sentences:

1. Good citizens love their neighbors and serve their country well.
2. We have many ships.
3. The man watched the clock.
4. What books will the girls read?
5. The women and children laughed aloud.
6. Father and mother expect me.
7. Who killed the canary?
8. We had apple pie and coffee for lunch.
9. We want health and happiness.
10. The teacher praised the pupils for their good work.

In English, the subject usually precedes the verb, while the object usually follows it. You will notice that we may say, "The man kills a tiger," or "The tiger kills a man," and either is a complete sentence. But it is by the *position* of the words that we know the difference between the subject and the object. We almost always place the subject before the verb and the object after it in English. This is not necessarily true in other languages. Let us look, for example, at some Latin sentences.

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Puella amat nautam. (The girl loves the sailor.)

Nautam puella amat.

Puella nautam amat.

All three Latin sentences say the same thing. The changes in position of the nouns merely change the emphasis from one word to another. But the important fact is that Latin has *endings* to show the use which is made of a noun. Thus, *puella* is the subject and *nautam* is the direct object, no matter where it comes in the sentence. In English, the *position* of the noun usually shows its use in the sentence. The natural order in English is subject before the verb.

Nauta amat puellam. (The sailor loves the girl.)

Puellam nauta amat.

Nauta puellam amat.

By changing the endings of the nouns above we have made *nauta* the subject of the sentence and *puellam* the direct object, regardless of the word order.

Note that in Latin we have *changed the endings* but in English we have *changed the positions* of the nouns. Such sentences as "The girl loves the sailor," "The sailor loves the girl," are called *declarative sentences* because they declare or state a fact.

Suppose that instead of making a statement in English, we want to ask a question. How do we ask about the sailor and girl? We say, "Does the sailor love the girl?" See how the French would ask that question: "Est-ce que le marin aime la jeune fille?" ("Is it that the sailor loves the girl?") How would the German ask the question? "Liebt der Seemann das Mädchen?" ("Loves the sailor the girl?")

A LAW UNTO ITSELF

Every language has patterns which must be followed in the making of sentences. We must know the patterns of our language and follow them.

Some verbs do not have direct objects. As we said before, a complete thought must say or ask something, and it is the *verb* that does this work. While we call the verb an action word, we do have some verb forms which state or ask something without any action, for instance:

The man *is* old.

Were you there?

The boys *are* in school.

These verbs are all forms of the verb *to be*. Notice that the word which follows the verb *to be* is necessary to complete the thought. If we say *man old*, we haven't a complete thought; but, when we link *man* and *old* by a verb, such as *is*, or *was*, we have expressed a complete thought, and we have stated something. Such verbs are used to link the subject and the predicate and are called *linking verbs*. Do not confuse the words that follow a linking verb with a direct object, which is the receiver of the action.

CROSS QUESTIONS AND CROOKED ANSWERS

How would you like to play a game with sentences? No game is quite so laugh-provoking as "Cross Questions and Crooked Answers."

Prepare two slips of paper. On one slip write a question about anything of interest that you can think

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of. On the other slip write the answer in a complete sentence. Pass the slip containing the question to the person in front of you and then pass the answer slip to the person behind you. As your chairman or teacher calls on you, read the question and answer that have been passed to you. Of course, the question and answer that you read do not match, and are quite ridiculous, but it is loads of fun.

DECLARATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

In this game, two kinds of sentences are used. The sentences that ask questions are called interrogatives, from the Latin word *rogare*, meaning *to ask*. An interrogative sentence is always followed by a question mark. The answers are called *declarative* sentences because they declare something or state a fact. At the end of each sentence there must be a period.

Next time we ask a question, let us remember that we are using an interrogative sentence. When we tell a friend something, remember that we are using declarative sentences or stating facts.

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

When a subject is not given, it must be understood, for every complete sentence must have a subject. We have learned that a sentence must have a subject and a verb, but we shall now learn that the subject is sometimes left out, although we can supply it. Here are some examples of complete thoughts that are sentences, without subject expressed.

A LAW UNTO ITSELF

1. Give me your book.
2. Come back.
3. Don't go.
4. Hurry up.

These sentences all have the same subject understood, namely, *you*. In form they are not complete, but there can be no doubt who the subject is. If we express the subject, the sentences would read as follows:

1. You give me your book.
2. You come back.
3. Don't you go.
4. You hurry up.

These sentences all give commands and are called *imperative sentences*.

EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES

Sometimes we have to supply both the subject and the verb. Have you ever been excited? Tell the class about the most exciting experience that you ever have had. What are some of the things you said at the time? How did you say them? Were you calm and matter-of-fact? Did you speak in complete sentences?

Write down on paper or on the board some of the things you said when you were excited or provoked. Look at them. Does just reading the words give you that same excited feeling? In a moment of excitement, we often leave out both the subject and the verb in these *exclamatory* remarks. By putting an exclamation point after each remark it becomes a sentence like this:

What a beautiful picture!

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If we express the subject and verb we should have:

What a beautiful picture this is!

Such a group of words is called an *exclamatory sentence* and should always be followed by an *exclamation point*.

TEST ON FOUR KINDS OF SENTENCES

Quadruplets

Remember these names: Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, Exclamatory. Quintuplets for Canada and quadruplets for us! Four of a kind keep us busy enough. The four kinds of sentences furnish about all the variety we need.

Here is a chance to find out how much we have learned and what we remember about sentences. Let us copy the following sentences and punctuate them, telling whether each is declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory:

1. What is your city's chief industry
2. How dark it was
3. Every good citizen goes to vote
4. Obey your parents
5. To thine own self be true
6. Can a leopard change his spots
7. What a fine chap he is
8. Work and pray
9. All men are created free and equal
10. How can you be sure of success
11. How terrible it must be
12. Love your neighbors
13. Every beginning is difficult

A LAW UNTO ITSELF

14. What a difficult problem
15. Is health more important than wealth
16. All's well that ends well

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is meant by *rules* and of what use are they?
2. What do we mean by saying, "What is right for Mary may be wrong for Ann"?
3. How do words get particular meanings?
4. Study the Latin sentences on page 90 and tell how they compare with English.
5. What do we mean by the word *pattern* when we speak of a language?
6. What is the difference between the definite and the indefinite article?
7. In what way does the position of a word in a sentence affect the meaning?
8. Why do we say that *be* is a linking verb?
9. Does the verb *be* have an object? Can you explain?
10. How do we show great excitement by the way we speak?

ACTIVITIES

1. If you can say, "How do you do" in some other language, you might teach it to the class.
2. Write out the *rules* for "Blind Man's Buff" so that a stranger visiting you could understand how to play the game.
3. Interview a Latin student. Ask about the order of words in a Latin sentence and any other facts in which you may be interested and report back to the class.
4. Look in a book on *vocations* and find the names of unusual occupations and then discuss these various jobs in class.

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5. Write out directions for making something, a kite or a cake, for instance. Be sure you are so definite and careful that your directions can be followed with good results.

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The Voice With a Smile

What does a voice tell by its very sound? Have you ever answered the telephone and heard a voice say to you, "I bet you don't know who this is"? Sometimes you reply, "Of course I do; it's Harry."

The fact is no two voices are exactly alike any more than two faces are exactly alike. There is a difference in the tone of the voice, in pitch, in speed of utterance, and perhaps in the way certain sounds are pronounced. We become so used to certain voices that we recognize them at once. The voices of members of our family and even of our favorite radio broadcasters are familiar to us. We can recognize on the radio the voices of Amos and Andy, Major Bowes, Charlie McCarthy, Lowell Thomas, and many others whom we have never seen.



Courtesy of the New York Telephone Company

"The voice with a smile."

LANGUAGE

There is something personal in a voice. It may be pleasant, friendly, and courteous, or it may be impatient, expressionless, and unpleasant.

A good impression is made by a pleasant voice. The tone of our voices affects the listener so that, even without knowing us, he forms a lasting impression of us. He decides, upon hearing our voices, many things concerning our dispositions, our training, and our feelings at the moment we are speaking. The way we feel shows in our voice when we speak. We are cheerful; we are gloomy; we are angry; we are sleepy; we are pleased; we are cross — all that appears in the tone of our voices. Our manner of speaking shows whether we are persons of culture and refinement, or coarse, surly, and ill-bred persons.

What is voice? Have you heard your own voice as others hear it? That brings us to the question of what voice is. The simplest answer is that voice is sound made through the mouth. Then we ask what sound is. Well, we can say that sound is anything that is heard. Sound is made by waves of the air which strike the eardrums and make them quiver or vibrate, and then nerves like tiny telephone wires carry the message to the brain.

Voice is sound made by the vibration of the vocal folds in the voice box or larynx. The vocal folds are two strips like elastic bands, situated at the upper end of the wind pipe or Adam's apple. The air or breath comes out of the lungs and stirs these vocal folds, thus producing a sound. This sound which comes out of the mouth can be greatly modified or changed by the

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various positions of the lips, the teeth, the jaws, the tongue.

Let us experiment with a few sounds needed to make words. First, there are the vowels, *a, e, i, o, u*. Let us pronounce the following words: *ah, at, ate, eat*. Our mouths are open in saying these sounds, but our jaws change position. They are most open for the sound *ah*, and gradually close for the other sounds in order. Now let us round our lips as if we were going to whistle and let us say *all, obey, oh, rule*. We notice that we are gradually moving our lips forward and closer together so that in *rule* they are almost closed.

Now let us try a few of the consonants. Some of them have no voice. They are mere breath consonants, such as, *f, p, t, th* (in *thin*), *s* (in *six*), *sh* (in *shoe*), *ch* (in *cheek*). Some other consonants do have voice, such as, *b, d, th* (in *this*), *z* (in *haze*), *j* (in *jam*), *g* (in *go*), and *m, n, ng*.

A given letter of our alphabet may not always represent the same sound. Not only does the letter *i* represent the sounds in *pin* and *machine*, but *i* may represent two sounds joined in quick succession, for example, in *island*. This sound of *i* is sometimes represented by two letters, as in *aisle*. Two vowel sounds joined together so that they seem to make one sound are called a *diphthong*. The English language contains many diphthongs. The sound *oi* in *join* and the *ai* in *pain* are examples. But two vowels may stand side by side and each keep its own sound as in *cooperate* and *vacuum*.

Some consonants may also represent more than one

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sound; for example, the letter *c* represents *k* in *car* and *s* in *cent*. The letter *g* in *gem* sounds like *j*. *S* in *rose* sounds like *z*. *Th* in *this* is not like *th* in *think*.

Can you learn to control your voice? When you get home look in a mirror and watch your mouth as you say all these different sounds clearly. See how it changes position. It has to change, because that change of position is what makes the differences in sounds. We have heard that some deaf people are able to understand what we say by reading our lips. If we watch people who enunciate distinctly we shall see how much their lips move. The more we move our lips the more distinctly we are likely to speak. We have heard people talk like this, "Gwon, wadjumean? Wasat? Hedadunit." Let us not allow ourselves to be so lazy-lipped.

We can have a clear, pleasant voice if we care to make the effort to improve ourselves. First, we should relax our bodies so that there is no strain, but just a natural outpouring of breath and sound. Then, we should open our mouths and move our lips and jaws and tongue and let the tones come out.

Even the deaf and mute can learn to "hear" and "speak." There are children unable to hear speech sounds and therefore not able to imitate sounds made by other people. These children are called deaf mutes. Most deaf mutes communicate by signs. Perhaps some of you know the sign language of the deaf mutes.

In recent years schools for the deaf have been teaching speech and lip reading. Great progress is being made in our country in teaching the deaf to produce

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correct sounds by showing them how to shape their mouths and how to place their tongues. The pupil places his hand on the teacher's cheek and feels the vibration caused by the teacher's voice. In time the pupil will be able to reproduce the sound he has heard through his fingers. When he imitates the mouth position of his teacher and feels the same vibration he knows that he is making the correct sound. The vibrations of a piano on which a deaf person holds his hand will make it possible for him to follow a tune.

You can learn to improve your voice. The human voice, like a musical instrument, has many tones. The mouth is a sound instrument. If we have ever tried to blow a bugle, we know that we cannot afford to have lazy lips. The volume of sound that we produce depends on the skill with which we use our breath and our lips. To blow a bugle well requires practice and training. Our own voices also require practice and training. Voices can be trained to speak clearly just as the famous Seeing Eye dogs are trained to lead the blind.

Because one person makes the sounds and another person hears them, it is very important that the speaker enunciate or pronounce distinctly and correctly. As we listen to the following sounds, we can understand how necessary it is to say clearly what we mean to say: "A nice man may be an ice man." An example of a misunderstanding caused probably by "lazy lips" occurred when a teacher dictated the following sentence to a class: "Here is a worm, do not step on it." The class wrote: "Here is a warm doughnut, step on it."

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In writing we use punctuation marks to add expression to what we say. We realize how easily we can misunderstand sounds and so lose entirely the speaker's thought. Let us be careful to sound all the necessary letters in a word. Let us say *February* instead of *Febuary*, and "I should have done it," rather than "I should of done it," and "I don't know," instead of "I dunno."

WHY PUNCTUATE?

Punctuation tells us many things. Whenever we speak, we show by the rise and fall of the voice or by pauses the thought or feeling we are trying to express. But in writing, we cannot show our meaning by voice changes or by pauses, so we separate the parts of a sentence by punctuation marks to help us get the thought clearly. Certain marks or signs of punctuation lead the way to a more intelligent reading and a clearer understanding. Notice the difference in meaning which the punctuation marks make in the following sentences:

John said, "Mary will not go to the game this afternoon."

"John," said Mary, "will not go to the game this afternoon."

Who is the speaker in the first sentence? Who speaks in the second one? The quotation marks (" ") indicate the direct words of the speaker, and by placing them differently we have changed the meaning of the sentence.

Copy and punctuate the following sentence correctly to convey the meaning: *That that is is that that is not is not*. When you speak this sentence the *tone* of the

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voice and the pauses between words will lead to the meaning you want to convey.

There are six signs which help to make our meanings clear in writing: period (.), comma (,), colon (:), semicolon (;), apostrophe ('), and quotation marks (" ").

I. The period (.)

- A. We have already learned that a period is placed at the end of each declarative or imperative sentence, for example:

The fertile valley was an easy place for men to make a living. (declarative)

Learn to use a dictionary. (imperative)

- B. We often find it convenient to shorten certain words. We have all used such words as Mr., Dr., and P.T.A. We know that Mr. stands for Mister, Dr. stands for Doctor, and P.T.A. is a short form for Parent Teacher Association. These shortened forms have a rather long name, *abbreviations*. Each abbreviation must be followed by a period.

THINGS TO DO

1. Make a list of abbreviations. Compare and check with other lists of your classmates.

2. Copy on paper the following sentences and put periods where they should be. Then encircle the periods you have put in.

a. Mr A R Paul goes to Fla each winter

b. A speaker from the Y W C A will talk to the girls in the auditorium at 10 30

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- c. Meetings are held on the first Wed in Sept , Nov ,
and Feb

II. The comma (,)

This mark is a very busy fellow wherever we find good writing. It is his job to do these things:

- A. To separate words in a series; as,

In our garden we have carrots, beans, peas, and cabbages.

- B. To separate groups of words in a series; as,

“Over the river, and through the woods, to grandfather’s house we go.”

- C. To separate *yes* and *no* from the rest of the sentence; as,

Yes, I have enjoyed the book.

No, primitive man had no wagons.

- D. To set off the name of a person spoken to; as,

Did you say, John, that dogs do not speak?



Louis Pasteur in his laboratory.

Betty, you may join the poster committee on illustrations.

- E. To set off little expressions of explanation; as,

Egypt, called the Gift of the Nile, gave us the calendar. Louis Pasteur, the great French scientist, developed the process we call pasteurizing milk.

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By inserting a comma in the wrong place a clerk cost the United States \$2,000,000. Congress passed a law listing articles that could be admitted duty free. The list contained this sentence, "All foreign fruit-plants are free from duty," but the clerk wrote, "All foreign fruit, plants are free from duty." Great quantities of fruit came in duty free, because it was impossible to correct this error until Congress met in a new session.

THINGS TO DO

1. Copy on paper the following sentences and supply commas where you think a natural pause in the voice would make the meaning clearer.

- a. His appearance his manner the way he talked and even his walk were very strange.
- b. In our school we have social dancing practice in public speaking and experiences in garden appreciation.
- c. Don't you think Roger that it is interesting to read about the early Britons?
- d. The robber band tied their horses to the shrubs looked carefully about then opened the massive secret door.
- e. My favorite books are *Treasure Island* *Red Horse Hill* *Mehitable* and *Boys' Book of Frontier Fighters*.
- f. Why can't you go to the party Betty?
- g. The boys shouted danced skipped for joy and carried the winners on their shoulders.
- h. We had visited Yellowstone Park Pike's Peak Mesa Verde Park and Grand Canyon.
- i. Near Phoenix Arizona some Navajo Indians brought baskets for us to buy.
- j. Mickey our little puppy had recently disappeared.

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- k. Bob please try to improve your writing.
 - l. The movie " Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs " was a remarkable example of color photography.
 - m. At three o'clock Betty we shall meet each girl bringing her own lunch.
 - n. The plan is for each section to offer prizes for the best garden to encourage thrift to form a healthy summer occupation for leisure hours.
 - o. Our unexpected visitors Aunt Anna and Uncle Joe brought more pleasure than we had enjoyed in some time.
2. Write three sentences to show each of the five uses of the comma.
3. Try to find a few examples of each use of the comma in a magazine or newspaper. Paste them on cardboard or stiff paper and bring to class.

III. The colon (:)

This mark does not appear often, but when we see it we should know what it means. The most common use of the colon is:

- A. To introduce a list of words; as,

The inner chamber of the pyramid contained rich treasure: mummies, pieces of ancient furniture, beautiful jewelry, and pottery.

Jane prepared her Christmas shopping list: slippers for mother, a book for father, new high-tops for Jim, and a party purse for Louise.

IV. The semicolon (;)

- A. Sometimes we have in a sentence two or more complete thoughts which are quite closely related. In place of a comma and joining

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word (conjunction) we often use a semicolon; as,

The Lord is my Shepherd; I shall not want.

The people in all the world want peace; yet wars seem to follow wars as the night follows the day.

Lawrence went to a summer camp in northern Michigan; Edward worked in his father's store.

V. The apostrophe (')

A. Sometimes we speed up our ways of saying things by shortened forms, called *contractions*. The apostrophe shows that some letter has been omitted; as,

Are not you coming?

Aren't you coming?

It's one o'clock.

Note that *it's* stands for *it is* while *its* expresses possession.

Example: Its pages are worn.

B. The apostrophe is also used with nouns to show ownership or possession; as,

The robin's song is sweetest in the early spring.

The boys' work was finished early.

In the first sentence, there was but one robin so we use 's.

In the second sentence, there was more than one boy so we used s'.

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THINGS TO DO

1. Use the following contractions in sentences:

don't

wouldn't

aren't

doesn't

couldn't

weren't

can't

2. Write on a slip of paper the long form for each one. Then underline the letter or letters left out.

3. On a slip of paper put in the apostrophe that is missing in the following underlined words and tell why you put it just in that place:

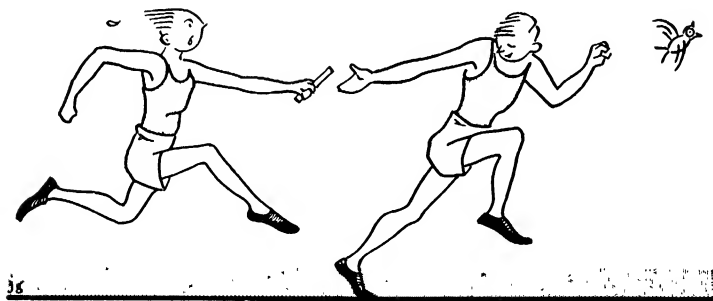
a. His sisters dress was not like the two girls dresses.

b. Have you seen Charless cap?

c. The childrens games were exciting.

d. The boys clubs had a joint meeting that day.

e. Everybodys business is nobodys business.



4. **A Relay Race.** When it comes to sports, there are generally a few who excel and get most of the chances to play. A relay race offers more people the chance to participate. Here is a chance for each of you to get into the game.

Listed below are twenty words, some singular and some plural. Your job is to change them so that each word shows

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possession or ownership. But, before you begin, keep in mind these rules of English:

- a. The possessive form of a singular noun is formed by adding an apostrophe and *s*. Example: girl's ('s)
- b. The possessive form of a plural noun ending in *s* is formed by adding an apostrophe. Example: pupils' (')

If the plural form does not end in *s*, add the apostrophe and *s*. Example: women's ('s)

Two rows at a time will play this game. The first pupil will go to the board, change the first word to the possessive form, and return to his seat before the next pupil goes to the board to form the possessive of the second word. The row that finishes its list of possessives first, correctly, wins. The rest of the class are the judges. *Ready, get set, go!*

Form the possessive of the following words:

mouse	Knox	children	thief
boy	legion	Harry	actors
man	potato	ladies	enemy
brother	goose	officer	church
babies	Agnes	sheep	deer

VI. Quotation marks (“ ”)

- A. Anything that is quoted and credited to a speaker is enclosed in quotation marks. A new set of quotation marks is used for each new speaker, as, for example:

“ He is not here,” said Mary.

“ When do you expect him? ” asked John.

- B. Quotation marks are used around the title of an article or a chapter of a book: as,

The first chapter of this book is “ The Need of Language in Our Daily Lives.”

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THINGS TO DO

Copy the following paragraph and supply the necessary punctuation marks:

Is she coming to the picnic tomorrow asked Marys teacher. Mother has not been well and Mary said John may not be able to leave her if Bill comes the boys father will send a note saying dear Miss Brown please excuse Marys absence and oblige yours truly George Smith.

Read the poem below and note the many uses of punctuation marks.

ADVENTURE

A runaway road passes grandfather's gate,
And scampers away to the lea.
I say to it, " Please, little road, won't you wait? "
But it only cries, " Come follow me! "
The gate whispers, " Stay! "
And the swing cries out, " Play! "
But the runaway road just scampers away.
And I'm so bewitched that I burst into laughter,
And leap the low fence to go merrily after.
I've followed before; so of course the road knows me,
And there is no end to the secrets it shows me.

From *Around a Toadstool Table*, by Rowena Bastin Bennett.
Follett Publishing Company, Chicago.

ENLARGE YOUR VOCABULARY

Voice is of little use unless you have something to say. We have spoken of the importance of the voice because we want to realize what a good voice means. But it requires more than just the *tone* of the voice to make an appeal to listeners. The silver-tongued orator must

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Fwing Galloway

When you apply for a position, you will make a favorable impression if you can use language correctly and forcefully.

have *something to say*. A mere flow of pleasant sounding words is not enough. There must be *meaning* and *thought* back of the words. There must be a rich vocabulary, or stock of words, to express this meaning and thought.

One of the purposes of this course is to help us to enlarge our stock of words and to make us *think* carefully about words.

Why should you enlarge your vocabulary? There are always opportunities for work for those who prepare themselves to meet the demands of this busy world. Nothing is more important in business and professional life than a thorough knowledge of our language. Our language is the medium by which we acquire all other knowledge. Let us remember that language is

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our means of communication and the very instrument of thought. The ability to use language correctly and forcefully is a mark of the educated man. His language means more in his social relations than the clothes he wears. It may give him the ability to influence thousands of other people.

Investigations have shown that important businessmen, earning large salaries, have large vocabularies. This is because words are the tools with which men do their own thinking as well as grasp the thoughts of others.

The great English statesman Disraeli once said, "With words we rule mankind."

WORD STUDY

- I. See how quickly you can find in the dictionary four facts about each of the following words which were used in this chapter:

courteous	vowel
sound	consonant
vibrate	diphthong
vocal folds	punctuation
voice box	characteristic

- II. Are there any other words used in this chapter that you do not understand?
- III. Use the following words in sentences of your own:

suggestion	instrument
influence	opportunity
badge	dialect

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TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is meant by the saying that a musician can make a piano "talk"?
2. Does a musical instrument have a voice?
3. How did Helen Keller learn to read and write?
4. Which is more important: *what* you say, or *how* you say it?
5. Do all persons born in the United States pronounce each word in the same way? Why or why not?
6. What is meant by the word *dialect*? Are there any dialects in this country?
7. Is a loud voice always easier to understand than a low one?
8. Can you mention some other tongue-twisters like, "She sells sea shells," which help to make us enunciate more clearly?
9. Can you name some important parts of your speech mechanism? Where and how could you find an answer to this question?
10. What kind of a voice would you use if you were speaking from your auditorium platform to the entire school, urging everyone to support the football team?

ACTIVITIES

1. Visit a class for the deaf and report on it to the class.
2. Tell how sound communication affects our lives.
3. Construct a megaphone. Try out different sizes and note what happens.
4. Compare the human voice and the telephone transmitter. Compare also the human ear and the telephone receiver. (The telephone company will probably lend you a receiver and transmitter for purposes of demonstration.)
5. Try this experiment: Take a ruler and place it against the bone behind your ear, plug your ear, and, with

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the finger, scratch the other end of the ruler. Do you hear the faint noise of the scratching?

6. Look up the International Phonetic Alphabet and use it to write out the following English sentence: "English is my native tongue."

7. Have a record of your own voice made so that you may hear yourself as others hear you.

8. Listen to a phonograph record or a radio program in some foreign language which you do not know and tell your impressions of that language.

9. Compare two or three speakers or announcers on the radio and see if you can tell why one is easier to understand.

10. Try this experiment on your dog: Say in a very cross voice, "You faithful old pal." Then say in a gentle, friendly voice, "Get out of my way, you brute." Watch the effect of your voice on the dog and then determine whether it is the tone of your voice or the words that he understands.

11. Organize a club that will give "radio talks" before an imaginary microphone and have members of the club compete for the honor of being the "best speaker."

12. Play a voice recognition game in which a blindfolded pupil attempts to recognize the voice of a pupil who is reciting. When he guesses right the other person takes his place.

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The Art of Writing Developed from Pictures

★

Before men had invented letters they used pictures to convey written ideas. Have you noticed that young children love to draw pictures? Some of these drawings are easy to understand, but others are hard to interpret. Perhaps those three uneven lines joined at the top may be a picture of grandmother's pretty white house nestling among old-fashioned flowers behind a white picket fence. And that funny mark is a little girl holding in her arms a big tiger kitty nearly as large as she is. Our small artist knows exactly the ideas she wishes to picture. But to the observer, there appears to be just a puzzling group of meaningless marks.



American Museum of Natural History

Early man decorated the walls of his caves. These bison, painted in bright colors, were found in a cavern near Dordogne, France. The artists lived over 25,000 years ago.

WRITING DEVELOPED FROM PICTURES

These crude drawings made by children with pencil or chalk are like early man's first attempts at drawing pictures. An interesting fact is that these pictures drawn by early man were the beginnings of *the art of writing*.

Writing was one of man's greatest achievements. Just as we learned to speak long before we learned to read and write, so early man was able to communicate by gestures and by sounds long before he could read or write. But even when man and his family lived in a cave in the hillside, he was ever on the alert for better shelter and ways of making life easier and safer. This striving for better things has led man up and on from the early days of great hardships and dangers to the civilization he has reached today. During that long climb there are certain achievements which stand out large and important, just as mountains tower above the surrounding countryside. Among these great achievements we have placed man's development of speech first, and we shall place next his invention of a way to picture his thoughts and feelings so that he might communicate with those who were not within the sound of his voice.

Some examples of picture writing. Writing is very different from speech; it only pictures speech. At first the pictures looked as nearly like the things they represented as the artist could make them; for example, this Chinese picture of a man 𠂔. Gradually as people learned to know what the pictures stood for, they became careless in making them, until the pictures no longer looked very much like the original ones; for ex-



Free-Lance Photographer's Gui

Young American baseball players argue about the number of strikes and balls. II or III?

ample. this symbol 人 is now the Chinese for man. These pictures we call *pictograms*. This is the first step that early man took in developing writing.

How did men come to use symbols for written words? Pictures were probably only used in the beginning to leave a message or to serve as a reminder, just as we sometimes tie a string to a finger to help us to remember something we have to do.

Let us look now for a moment at the Roman numerals I, II, III. They do not spell, they merely picture for

WRITING DEVELOPED FROM PICTURES

us the words *one*, *two*, *three*, and originally they were pictures of the fingers held up in counting. We have seen the baseball umpire use this method of calling strikes and balls. These numbers are called *digits* from the Latin word *digitus* meaning "finger." The numerals 1, 2, 3 are *Arabic* and they picture the same idea as the I, II, III. We call such pictures of ideas, *ideograms*. This was the second step in developing *writing*.

Where did the alphabet come from? What we want to know is how these early pictures developed into our form of writing with the alphabet. We have often heard the expression, "Rome was not built in a day," which means that it took hundreds of years to build the beautiful city of Rome. Just so, it took thousands of years to develop our alphabet. In order to find out about its beginning we shall have to go far away to learn something about an ancient people, the Egyptians.

Let us look at a globe, or a map, of the world and find where Egypt is located. We find it in the northern part of Africa spread out for many miles along the Nile River. From there came the idea of our alphabet in a long, roundabout way.

Egypt was one of the first countries in the world to develop a wonderful civilization. Nobody can think of Egypt without associating it with the Nile, the pyramids, the Sphinx, obelisks, hieroglyphics, Pharaohs, and Cleopatra. Every one of these words carries a fascinating story. If you don't know these stories, you will enjoy reading any one of the books or articles listed at the end of this chapter. You will see how many interesting things there are to learn about Egypt.

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Gendreau

A camel caravan along the shores of the Nile, with pyramids in the background.

The Egyptians were probably the first people to make a calendar to reckon time. They divided the year into twelve months of thirty days each, but since there are 365 days in a year, they had five days left over for a great festival. Of course, they did not count their years before and after the birth of Christ in the way we do now. They counted the years of the reign of each king. For example, they might date an event by saying that it happened in the first year of the reign of Rameses II.

The Egyptians gave us probably the earliest fixed date in history: 4241 B.C. What is meant by the letters

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B.C. following the numbers? Just how many years ago was that date?

How did the Egyptians develop an alphabet? In the days of its early glory, ancient Egypt had a great university at Heliopolis which became renowned for its work in astronomy, which is the study of the stars. Scholars believe that it was at the University of Heliopolis that Moses learned the wisdom of the Egyptians. These Egyptians, who had so many wonderful ideas, also found a way to express themselves in writing. In their sacred tombs, or pyramids, many samples of Egyptian writing are found which show that the Egyptians began by using simple pictures for their writing purposes.

These symbols were later called by the Greeks hieroglyphics or "sacred carvings" because they were supposed to be symbols known only to the priests. Later it was found that this form of writing was used by all educated Egyptians.

The important fact, however, is that these pictures were later developed to represent *sounds* and stood for syllables; that is, they were phonograms, or sound writing. Finally, they came to stand for the *beginning sound* of a syllable; that is, they became signs or *letters* of an *alphabet*. Step by step the Egyptians developed an alphabet of 23 symbols or letters. This is considered one of the *greatest inventions in the history of civilization*.

We of the modern world are indebted to Egypt for much of our knowledge of science, building, and art, but most of all for their making an alphabet, although

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our English alphabet did not come even indirectly from the Egyptians.

In time, Egypt fell into the hands of powerful enemies, and although she lost her position of power, her civilization lived on.

How did we learn to read the ancient Egyptian writings? At the present time it is possible to decipher, that is, read, the hieroglyphics and symbols of the Egyptian alphabet. But for hundreds and hundreds of years the symbols and pictures of Egyptian monuments remained a complete mystery to scholars everywhere. It was not until about a hundred years ago that the world got the answer to this mystery. The story is a very interesting one.

While the French army under Napoleon was in Egypt in 1799, a young French officer found near the town of Rosetta, not far from Alexandria, a stone slab upon which there were three different kinds of inscriptions. This was the famous *Rosetta Stone*, now in the British Museum in London. The inscriptions consist of fourteen lines of hieroglyphics, fifty-four lines of Greek, and thirty-two lines of Demotic, which was a second form of writing used by the Egyptians. Modern scholars understood the Greek inscription and the task was to find the meaning of the hieroglyphics. For twenty years, scholars everywhere tried to find the solution, but with little success.

It was the French scholar Champollion who finally accomplished this masterly task on which many scholars had worked for years. He spent many long years on the work, and these years of hard work were rewarded

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by success. His name will live forever and be a symbol of what can be done by sticking to a hard task in spite of discouragement.

Champollion found that the name of a ruler was always enclosed in a kind of frame, now called a "cartouche." He was able to work out the names of two famous rulers, Ptolemy and Cleopatra. At the right you see these two cartouches which helped Champollion to decipher twelve of the hieroglyphics. Later the entire Rosetta Stone was translated. It is due to Champollion's painstaking work that the world has been able to learn so much about ancient Egypt.



From "A History of the Art of Writing" by William A. Mason. The Macmillan Co.



CLEOPATRA

PTOLEMY

Let us look at the pictures in the names of Ptolemy and Cleopatra, and we shall see, for example, a lion. Since the Egyptian word for lion was "Labo," a picture of a lion was used to represent the sound of the letter *l*. But because they had many words beginning with *a* we find several pictures representing that letter; for example, *a reed, an arm, and an eagle*.

There is in Central Park, in New York City, an Egyptian obelisk called "Cleopatra's Needle" which was

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given to the United States some years ago by the ruler of Egypt. Hieroglyphics on this monument helped in the solution of the great mystery of Egyptian writing.

Before leaving the Egyptians, we should mention a plant called *papyrus* which grew in the marshy places along the Nile River. This plant was used to make material upon which to write. It is from this word *papyrus* that our word *paper* is derived.

The Egyptians were not the only ancient people who developed the art of writing. Another form of writing called *cuneiform* and consisting of wedge-shaped symbols was developed, perhaps a little later than the Egyptian, but separate from it, by the Babylonians and Sumerians, who lived in Mesopotamia, between the Tigris and the Euphrates Rivers. This kind of writing, used by people who attained a high degree of civilization, was also a mystery until about 1850. Then an English army officer, Sir Henry Rawlinson, undertook to translate an inscription carved on a rock rising 1600 feet from the ground, located near Behistun in Persia. This inscription was in three languages: Persian, Medic, and Babylonian. No doubt this was the world's first and most permanent "billboard," for it has been there for over 2000 years.

It was at one time believed that the Phoenicians, who were great traders and travelers in the Mediterranean countries, had originated the alphabet. Today the Egyptians get the credit for originating the idea of an alphabet, for the Phoenicians merely helped to develop and spread it.

The Hebrews, who were closely related to the Phoe-

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nicians, also developed an alphabet. The first letter of the Hebrew alphabet was called *aleph* for *ox*. The second letter they called *beth*, a word meaning *house*, because it was the picture of a primitive house. In the same way the other letters of their alphabet each stood for some well-known thing.

Hebrew	א ב ג ד ה ו ז ח ט י כ ל מ נ ס ע פ צ ק ר ש ת																									
Egyptian	𐀀	𐀁	𐀂	𐀃	𐀄	𐀅	𐀆	𐀇	𐀈	𐀉	𐀊	𐀋	𐀌	𐀍	𐀎	𐀏	𐀐	𐀑	𐀒	𐀓	𐀔	𐀕	𐀖	𐀗	𐀘	𐀙
Phenician	𐤀	𐤁	𐤂	𐤃	𐤄	𐤅	𐤆	𐤇	𐤈	𐤉	𐤊	𐤋	𐤌	𐤍	𐤎	𐤏	𐤐	𐤑	𐤒	𐤓	𐤔	𐤕	𐤖	𐤗	𐤘	𐤙
Old Greek	Α	Β	Γ	Δ	Ε	Ζ	Η	Θ	Ι	Κ	Λ	Μ	Ν	Ξ	Ο	Π	Ρ	Σ	Τ							
Euboean	Α	Β	Γ	Δ	Ε	Ζ	Η		Ι	Κ	Λ	Μ	Ν	Ξ	Ο	Π	Ρ	Σ	Τ	Υ						
Latin	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	K	L	M	N	X	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V				

During this time, the Greeks had been moving along the road to civilization. Among other things, they were learning to keep records of their trade with Phoenicia and with other Mediterranean trading centers. They took the names of the Hebrew letters and changed them to *Alpha*, *Beta*, and so on, which are still the Greek names of the letters. The Greeks made some changes and additions which made it possible to express more sounds in a shorter space. Eventually the Romans got these letters from the Greeks and adapted them to their needs; for the Romans of those days did what we Americans do today — used and improved upon the good ideas which they found other people using. Later most of the other nations in Europe adapted the Roman alphabet to their needs. The fact that He-

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Culver Service

Johannes Gutenberg reading proof drawn from the first European press to print with movable type.

brews wrote from right to left, whereas the Greeks and Romans finally came to write from left to right, as we do today, explains why the older shaped letters were turned around.

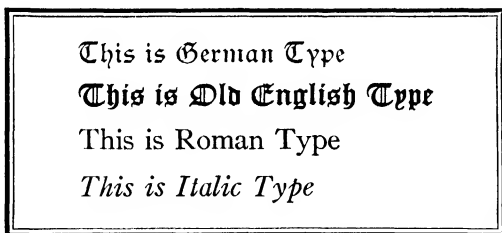
The English language borrowed its alphabet from the Romans. The Roman alphabet had twenty-three letters only. The letter *i* represented both the vowel and the consonant, but *j* was added in the Middle Ages to represent the consonant. Likewise, the Romans used *v* as a vowel or consonant. The use of *v* as a consonant and *u* as a vowel dates from the Middle Ages. The English took over this enlarged alphabet of twenty-five letters and added *w* (a double *u*). This alphabet of twenty-six letters is what we use in America today.

The first books were made by hand. The Romans,

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however, gave us only our capital letters. Our small letters and our script were outgrowths of the fine copy-writing of the monks of the Middle Ages, many of whom spent their lives copying the works of great Latin writers.¹ It is easy to understand how the shapes of the letters changed from time to time as one scribe copied another's writing, each one trying to make his script more beautiful than the others.

Five hundred years ago printing was invented. Books were very rare in the Middle Ages, and would have continued to be if an important invention had not been made: this was the invention of printing from movable types, by Johannes Gutenberg, about 1440 (probably in Strasbourg, Germany). This made it possible to print hundreds of copies of the same book. We can easily see what an important step this was in spreading culture and learning.



The types first used were, of course, quite simple, and it took several years to perfect Gutenberg's first work. The same type of print was not used everywhere. The words *Roman*, *Italic*, *German*, and *Script* are all applied to various types of print.

¹ You might enjoy reading a delightful story called *Gabriel's Hour Glass*, by Laura Richards, which tells about a boy who lived in a monastery and made some of these beautiful manuscripts.

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QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why was the invention of writing such an important step in the progress of the race?
2. Why does the written word *cow* not look like a cow?
3. Could you make pictures that would represent certain words of our language?
4. Which are more important: spoken words or the written symbols? Why?
5. How did people before writing was invented know what had happened before their own time?
6. Are there people in the United States who do not know how to read or write?
7. Can you show the class a copy of an American Indian picture story and explain what it means?
8. What is the difference between a pictogram and ideogram?
9. Find and tell something about:
 - a. The pyramids
 - b. The tomb of Tutankhamen
 - c. The Sphinx
 - d. Hieroglyphics
10. What can you tell about the calendar we use?
11. Are there peoples today who do not use our calendar?
12. What was the original meaning of the word *phonogram*? What language does it come from?
13. Can you make a list of words containing the syllable *phon-* or *phono-* and another list containing *-gram*?
14. What do we mean today when we speak of a *phonograph record*?

WRITING DEVELOPED FROM PICTURES

ACTIVITIES

1. A sentence written in pictures, sometimes with the aid of letters and numerals, is called a *rebus*. Try to write some sentences in that way, for example, "I can saw wood."



From Story of Nations Workbook by Rogers, Adams, and Brown. Henry Holt and Company.

Can you translate this rebus?

2. Do you know of any alphabets not discussed in Chapter VI? Make a chart or picture to illustrate.
3. List as many writing tools as you know about.
4. How does a code differ from an alphabet? Work out a secret code and present it to the class.
5. Make a copy of any part of an ancient manuscript like the ones made in the Middle Ages by the monks or scribes. Ask your art teacher to help you.
6. Is the system of shorthand an alphabet? Make charts to put on your bulletin board to illustrate this.
7. Copy an Indian message (which may be found in many library books) and explain it to the class.
8. Tell something about the alphabet used by the blind, called "braille," and bring examples to class.
9. Find out something about different kinds of printer's type and show examples.
10. Make a poster showing the difference between the Roman numerals and the Arabic. Try to work out this little problem in Roman numerals: Multiply XXXIX by VIII.

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PRELIMINARY ACTIVITY FOR CHAPTER 8

In order to understand the quotation from Dickens' *Bleak House* which follows in this chapter, the class should organize into a committee and assign each member one or two of the following words or phrases to explain to the class with illustrative sentences:

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Run the gamut | 19. Defiled |
| 2. Adequate | 20. Tiers |
| 3. Picturesque | 21. Pollution |
| 4. Extravagant | 22. Caboose |
| 5. Keywords | 23. Collier brigs |
| 6. Victims | 24. Yards |
| 7. Equity | 25. Rigging |
| 8. Implacable | 26. Barges |
| 9. Lowering | 27. Gunwales |
| 10. Blinkers | 28. Prentice-boy |
| 11. Elephantine | 29. Leaden-headed |
| 12. Lizard | 30. Obstruction |
| 13. Jostling | 31. Appropriate |
| 14. Infection | 32. Corporation |
| 15. Tenaciously | 33. Assort with |
| 16. Accumulating | 34. Groping |
| 17. Compound interest | 35. Floundering |
| 18. Green aits | 36. Pestilent |

Words and What Can Be Done With Them

Our language comes from all parts of the world to help us express our thoughts. “The ugly thug loafed at a damask-covered table on the café balcony, Wednesday, eating goulash and drinking hot chocolate with a half-caste brunette in a kimono-sleeved, lemon-yellow gown and a crimson angora-wool shawl, while he deciphered a code notation from a canny smuggler of silk cargoes on the back of the paper menu.”

Read carefully the above quotation. In what language is it written? It is apparently English, but in reality it consists of a group of words borrowed from twenty different languages. The outstanding fact about the English language is that it is made up of words from many languages. It is pieced together like grandmother's patchwork quilts, and, like them, the English language is a work of art and beauty. It is rich in words of every shade of meaning. It can express accurately every thought and emotion of which people are capable. There is no height to which it cannot rise and no depth to which it cannot sink. It can run the gamut of feeling from hope to despair. It can meet our needs from childhood to the grave. It can voice the vague notions of a child and the most learned writings

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of the greatest scholar. It possesses words to pour forth great wisdom and great folly. It is adequate to express the thoughts of the most imaginative poet, of the greatest scientist, of the deepest philosopher, and of the most eloquent orator.

Our language is like the painter's palette from which he chooses colors for his pictures. Words are the colors with which a great writer paints his pictures. To see what this last sentence means, read the following paragraphs from the opening chapter of Charles Dickens' *Bleak House*, which show how dramatic and picturesque our language can be in the hands of an artist. This passage is remarkable for the extravagant repetition of the keywords, and for the clearness with which it sets the tone and mood of the whole story, a gloomy, rainy recital of the efforts of certain victims of Chancery Court ¹ in London to get out of the clutches of the law.

"London. Michaelmas' ² term lately over and the Lord Chancellor ³ sitting in Lincoln's Inn Hall.⁴ Implacable November weather. As much mud in the streets, as if the waters had but newly retired from the face of the earth, and it would not be wonderful to see a Megalosaurus,⁵ forty feet long or so, waddling like an elephantine lizard up Holborn Hill. Smoke lowering down from chimney-pots, making a soft, black drizzle, with flakes of soot in it as big as full-grown snowflakes — gone into mourning, one might imag-

¹ The same as our *Probate Court* where the will of a deceased person is submitted for proof and examination.

² September 29, the feast of the archangel Michael, hence fall term.

³ The judge of the court of equity.

⁴ The law courts in London.

⁵ A prehistoric monster.



Fog in Trafalgar Square, London, at two o'clock one afternoon.

Keyst

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ine, for the death of the sun. Dogs, undistinguishable in mire. Horses, scarcely better; splashed to their very blinkers. Foot passengers, jostling one another's umbrellas in a general infection of ill temper, and losing their foot-hold at street corners, where tens of thousands of other foot passengers have been slipping and sliding since the day broke, adding new deposits to the crust upon crust of mud, sticking at those points tenaciously to the pavement, and accumulating at compound interest.

"Fog everywhere. Fog up the river, where it flows among green aits and meadows; fog down the river, where it rolls defiled among the tiers of shipping, and the waterside pollutions of a great and dirty city. Fog on the Essex marshes, fog on the Kentish heights. Fog creeping into the cabooses of collier brigs; fog lying out on the yards, and hovering in the rigging of great ships; fog drooping on the gunwales of barges and small boats. Fog in the stem and bowl of the afternoon pipe of the wrathful skipper, down in his close cabin; fog cruelly pinching the toes and fingers of his shivering little prentice-boy on deck. . . .

"The raw afternoon is rawest, and the dense fog is densest, and the muddy streets are muddiest, near that leaden-headed old obstruction: Temple Bar.¹ And hard by Temple Bar, at the very heart of the fog, sits the Lord High Chancellor in his High Court of Chancery.

"Never can there come a fog too thick, never can there come mud and mire too deep, to assort with the groping and the floundering condition which this High Court of Chancery, most pestilent of hoary sinners, holds, this day, in the sight of heaven and earth."

There are, no doubt, in this quotation many words that we do not know, but that does not matter. The general effect is there. We are perfectly conscious of

¹ The gateway that marked the city limits.

WHAT CAN BE DONE WITH WORDS

the dreariness and chill dampness. We realize what a London fog can do to a writer, and we realize also what pictures can be painted with words.

Such wetness! Such gloom! Such chill and filth! And, as if driven to the point of fury by the wretched weather, the climax of angry accusations against the Court of Chancery.

A skillful author chooses his words to produce the artistic effects he wants to make. So begins *Bleak House*. It is a masterly beginning which can hardly fail to attract attention. Let us look at the vocabulary for a moment. See how many *wet* words occur: *mud, waters, drizzle, mire, splashed, umbrellas, slipping, sliding, sticking, river, flows, marshes, fog*. Almost none of these words, except those referring to the river and boats have possibilities of pleasant associations; they are as slimy and unpleasant as the streets of London on that day. If we examine the passage once more in search of the gloomy element, we find the following examples: *implacable November weather; smoke lowering down; soft, black drizzle; soot; mourning; death; fog; close cabin; dense; leaden; groping; floundering*. Here are words which imply not only darkness, but dismal, irritating darkness, bad for dispositions. And if the following words, which indicate chilliness, are mixed with the gloom and the dampness, the weather is as bad for throats as for dispositions: *fog; cruelly pinching toes and fingers; raw afternoon*.

An occasional word of contrast, suggesting comfort just out of reach, adds to the chill and deepens the gloom: *stem and bowl of the afternoon pipe*. Dickens

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even carries us for a moment back to the days when monsters roamed the world, lifts us from the Essex marshes to the Kentish Heights, from the waterfront docks to the heart of the city. Then, having named his moods, and detailed the various features of weather and gloom, he catches them up, drawing them closer and closer to the object of his wrath, Chancery Court. It is a masterly introduction, as heavily and awkwardly written as befits such a mood and such a day, but it is irresistible; it is so dismal from the start that the reader is curious and feels compelled to read on and on.

Here is another picture, painted by a poet of our own time, Carl Sandburg.

FOG

The fog comes
on little cat feet.
It sits looking
over harbor and city
on silent haunches
and then moves on.

From *Chicago Poems*, by Carl Sandburg.
Henry Holt and Company, Publishers.

We can learn from the great writers. Each of these writers had a purpose and a special point of view; each one had access to the same vocabulary, yet there seems to be no resemblance in their use of it, except that each had a master touch. The two writers quoted above are, each in his own way, masters of the art of using words. We may never become masters, but we can learn from them. Let us begin now to read great books by great

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writers. Let us read not only for the story but to see how the writer expresses his thoughts, how he uses words, and how the same instrument, language, can be made to do such wonderfully varied things and give such delightful experiences.

One of the tributes to the power of written language is found in the book, *The Haunted Bookshop*. There Christopher Morley wrote, "When you sell a man a book, you don't sell just twelve ounces of paper and ink and glue; you sell him a whole new life. Love and friendship and humor and ships at sea at night — there's all heaven and earth in a book, a real book."

Books are keys to wisdom's treasure;
Books are gates to lands of pleasure;
Books are paths that upward lead;
Books are friends. Come, let us read.

From *Rhyme Time for Children*, by Emilie Poulsson.
Published by Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Company.

SUBSTITUTE WORDS

In order not to overwork some words we make use of substitutes. Almost every school has a baseball, soccer, or football team. With most of these teams there are substitute players who are training to take the places of regular players when needed. Indeed, these substitutes are a very important group, for often the success of the team depends upon them. In language we have the same situation, only the players are words instead of people, and very busy they are, too. The words that substitute for *nouns* are called *pronouns* and sometimes they work harder than the nouns.



Ewing Galloway

These substitutes are a very important group, for often the success of the team depends upon them.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

What are these pronouns? *I* say something. *I* am the person speaking and the pronoun *I* is called the first person singular pronoun. I speak to *you*. *You* are the person spoken to, and the pronoun *you* is called the second person singular pronoun.

The father comes home. *He* comes home. I am telling you this fact. The father is the person spoken of and the pronoun *he* is called the third person singular pronoun. If I say, "The mother comes," *she* is also called the third person singular pronoun. Then I can say, "It is yours"; *it* is also called third person singular; *it* does not refer to a person, but to a thing.

WHAT CAN BE DONE WITH WORDS

There are three persons in the singular and three persons in the plural.

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person	I	we (two or more persons)
Second person	you	you (two or more persons)
Third person	he, she, it	they (two or more persons or things)

These pronouns are called *personal* pronouns. The forms listed above are used as *subject* of a sentence or the doer of an action.

When the person is the receiver of the action or person acted upon the forms of the personal pronouns are:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Example</i>
me	us	The teacher called <i>me</i> (<i>us</i>).
you	you	The man saw <i>you</i> .
him, her, it	them	I saw <i>him</i> (<i>her, it, or them</i>).

These forms of the pronouns are called *objective* and are used as *objects*.

When the person is the owner or possessor, the following forms are used:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Example</i>
mine	ours	The book is <i>mine</i> (<i>ours</i>).
yours	yours	It is <i>yours</i> .
his, hers	theirs	It is <i>his</i> (<i>hers or theirs</i>).

These forms of the pronouns are called *possessive*. There are also *possessive adjective pronouns*, which modify or describe a noun.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Example</i>
my	our	<i>My</i> (<i>our</i>) class is here.
your	your	<i>Your</i> class is small.
his, her, its	their	<i>His</i> (<i>her or their</i>) class is large.
		<i>Its</i> place is taken.

LANGUAGE

THINGS TO DO

- I. Substitute pronouns for the underlined nouns in the following sentences:
 1. The purse belongs to mother.
 2. John told the father where the children were.
 3. The girl found the boys there.
 4. The boy's father sent the boy to our family.
 5. Your family is smaller than my family.
 6. John's and Henry's parents were with the boys.
 7. The umpire called Joe out.
 8. Joe's objections did not disturb the umpire.
 9. My dress is older than your dress.
 10. Your house is larger than our house.
 11. Father spoke to Mary and said, "Mary, bring father some water."
 12. The mother gave the girl some candy.
- II. In the following sentences, pick out and list on a sheet of paper the words that substitute for or take the place of nouns:
 1. How he enjoyed the trip up the Hudson!
 2. You may play in the basement, if you wish.
 3. He told them it was yours.
 4. It is not mine.
 5. At the close of the meeting, they voted on the issue.
 6. In spite of the storm, she continued the journey.
 7. They called them but it was in vain.
 8. The principal of the school praised him for the courage he had shown.
- III. Now rewrite the sentences in II above, but instead of using the substitute word, the *pronoun*, use the regular player, or the *noun*.

WHAT CAN BE DONE WITH WORDS

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What kind of a picture did Dickens make in his opening chapter of *Bleak House*?

2. What did he use to make his picture?

3. What is meant by saying: "Words are symbols"? Can you name the symbols used for *addition*, *barber*, *peace*, *danger*, *equality*, *policeman*?

4. How do you know what Dickens meant by: *fog*, *drizzle*, *mud*, *soot*, *skippers*?

5. Was it raining on that day in London? Explain your answer.

6. Use some of the following words taken from Dickens' opening chapter to make a pleasant picture, adding any words necessary to complete your picture: *river*, *meadows*, *green aits*, *flow*, *roll*, *barge*, *small boats*, *rigging*, *sun*, *slipping*, *skipper*, *pipe*, *day*, *broke*, *sight*, *heaven*, *smoke*, *soft*, *passengers*.

7. In what sense did Dickens use the word *fog* in referring to the Court of Chancery?

8. Explain what is meant by *tongue-lashing*.

9. Explain what is meant by the famous words: "The pen is mightier than the sword."

10. Is it permissible to say or write anything that one may hold as his personal opinion? What are *slander* and *libel*?

11. Have you ever been out in a heavy fog and seen how it began and then grew and hung over the city?

12. How do you like Sandburg's comparing the fog with a little cat?

13. Is his picture natural?

14. What does he leave for you to do?

15. Did Dickens leave much to your imagination?

16. What do we mean by *imagination*?

17. Why is it that everybody does not have the same power to paint pictures with words?

I. LANGUAGE

18. Why is it that everybody does not understand or appreciate word pictures?

19. Do you enjoy reading poetry? Why do you often find it harder to understand than prose?

20. What is meant by literature?

21. Is any poem, story, play, or book considered good literature?

22. Try to express some idea of your own in verse. (Good specimens will no doubt find a place in the school paper.)

ACTIVITIES

1. Look at the bottom of this page for the sources of the words in the first paragraph of this chapter and try to find other words from the same sources.

2. Are there any words in the quotation from *Bleak House* which you would care to know so well that you could use them freely? Mention some of them and show that you can use them in sentences.

3. Write in your own words a picture of a day like that one in London of which Dickens spoke in *Bleak House*. Don't just copy his words. Assume that you are in your own home town and make your symbols fit the present day.

4. If you are interested, find out something about the Probate Court in your city.

5. If you are interested, look up something about Charles Dickens.

6. Have you ever heard of David Copperfield or Tiny Tim?

SOURCES OF WORDS ON PAGE 135

ugly, smuggle	Icelandic
thug	Hindu
loafed	German
cafe, brunette	French

WHAT CAN BE DONE WITH WORDS

balcony	Italian
damask, covered, table, code, notation, menu .	Latin
Wednesday, drinking, eating, hot, half, with, yellow, wool, sleeved, back, while	Anglo-Saxon
goulash	Hungarian
chocolate	Mexican
caste	Portuguese
lemon, deciphered	Arabic
shawl	Persian
kimono	Japanese
gown	Celtic
crimson	Sanskrit
angora	Turkish
canny	Scotch
silk	Chinese
cargoes	Greek
paper	Spanish

BOOKS TO READ

- Appel, F. S. *Write What You Mean*. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1938.
- Felderman, Leon. *The Human Voice*. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1931; Chapter II.
- Gilchrist, Marie. *Writing Poetry*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1932; Chapters I and II.
- Holt, Alfred H. *You Don't Say! A Guide to Pronunciation*. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1937.
- Lloyd, Charles Allen. *We Who Speak English: Our Ignorance of Our Mother Tongue*. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1937.
- Miller, Ward S. *Word Wealth*. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1939. (For an increased vocabulary, and a more useful one.)
- Untermeyer, Louis. *Rainbow in the Sky*. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1935; pp. xxv-xxvii.

Helps for Using English

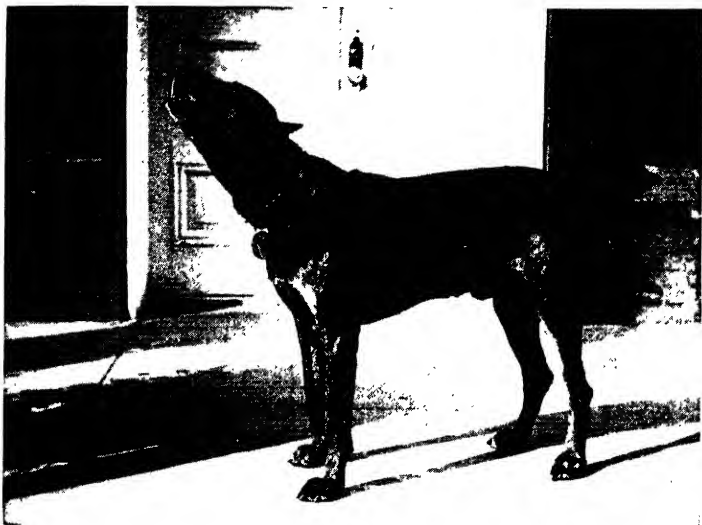
There is action everywhere. If we stepped to a window in our schoolroom and looked outside, we would probably see someone doing something. There might be movements of many kinds: automobiles speeding, airplanes flying overhead, people hurrying about their daily tasks. Even if the view before us seemed to be perfectly motionless, there would be some movements not so easy to see. Nothing stands still. The trees are constantly in motion, and, while we watch a cloud, we may see it moving and changing shape.

“The sky is full of clouds today
And idly to and fro
Like sheep across the pasture they
Across the heavens go.”

“Clouds,” from *Little Folk Lyrics*, by Frank Dempster Sherman.
Houghton, Mifflin Company, Publishers.

We have learned that people and things have names. Movements and actions have names, too. When a man picks up one foot and puts it down in front of the other, and repeats the performance, he moves along and we say he *walks*. If he increases his speed we say he *runs*. Perhaps he may plant both feet firmly on the floor, and we say he *stops*. The words *walk*, *run*, and *stop* are called *verbs*.

HELPS FOR USING ENGLISH



Keystone

“My old, black dog barks.”

Very important indeed are verbs. There can be no complete sentence without a verb, because a complete thought requires that we say something about the thing of which we are thinking. (See page 84.)

Let us think about a dog, for instance. What shall we say about him? We need a word that expresses action. Let us think of all actions possible for a dog. He can eat, drink, bark, and do many other things. If I say, “My old, black dog barks,” I have made a complete sentence. Let us look at this word *barks*, meaning *is barking*, *does bark* at the *present time*. We see that *barks* not only expresses an action, but also tells *when* the action happens. The dog *barks* now; the dog *barked* yesterday, in the *past time*; the dog *will bark*

LANGUAGE

tomorrow, in the *future time*. We changed the time of the action word merely by changing the form of the word. In this way, we can make a verb express present, past, or future time. We often speak of the time of the verb as the *tense*.

Would it not be worth while to learn now more about verbs which are such important members of the word family?

THINGS TO DO

Let us read the following sentences thoughtfully and see if we can name the verb. Remember that the verb is the word that tells what the subject does.

1. A good builder makes strong and beautiful houses.
2. The Angles first lived in northern Europe.
3. The dolls and tin soldiers danced in the moonlight.
4. Bees carry pollen from flower to flower.
5. Deep in the earth King Pluto ruled his kingdom.
6. Good books give us much pleasure.
7. The young pigeons went to bed early in the top of the barn.
8. Robin Hood lived in Sherwood Forest with his band of merry men.
9. A stately, painted fir tree lifted its leafy arms to the blue sky.
10. The playful wind blew papers and hats up and down the street.

It may take two or more words to express an action. Sometimes we have a job to do which is too difficult for one person alone. Of course, we don't give up in despair, but we ask someone to help us. This is true also with verbs. To express action, a word may need helping words. For example: "Soft flakes of fluffy snow falling through the clear air." The word *falling* alone is not an action verb.

HELPS FOR USING ENGLISH

It needs a helping verb, such as *are* falling, *were* falling, *have been* falling, or *had been* falling. Such a group of words we call a *verb phrase*.

With the following helping verbs, make some sentences of your own. Write them down and underline each verb phrase. Be sure there are two parts, an action verb, and a helping verb.

can	am	was
will	could	have
is	shall	has
are	were	had

Some verbs do not show action or movement. Verbs that do not show action are: *is, was, are, were*. They link the subject to a word or words that modify it, or identify it. They are called *linking verbs*, because they link together the parts of the sentence.

THINGS TO DO

Guessing Game

1. Choose four to six pupils to act out or dramatize some simple action. The class leader will call on different pupils to guess the verb which best describes the pantomime action. Have a secretary put each verb on the board so that the list can be checked later. Examples: *skating, picking flowers, bowing, kneeling*, etc. The pupil who guesses may plan the next action. Two or more pupils can work together.

2. Give the past tense for each of the following verbs: *go, see, do, drink, eat, come, lie, choose, write, read, lay, stop*. You might put them in the form of a table like this:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
go	went

3. Find out the difference between a verb like *find, found*, and *help, helped*. Your teacher will tell you how to get this information. Report on it to the class.

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4. Perhaps you have heard the term, *principal parts*, used in speaking of verbs. If you are interested, look this up and report to the class.

THE HOW, WHEN, AND WHERE WORDS

Describing Action — Adverbs

Actions may be described. We have learned how people and things can be described or limited by the use of words called adjectives. We shall now learn that actions can be described too. We can say,

“The automobile stopped { suddenly.”
quietly.”
smoothly.”

The words *suddenly*, *quietly*, and *smoothly* describe or tell *how* the automobile stopped.

Then we might say,

“The automobile stopped { nearby.”
here.”
there.”

The words *nearby*, *here*, and *there* describe or tell *where* the automobile stopped.

We might say,

“The automobile stopped { daily.”
soon.”
immediately.”

The words *daily*, *soon*, and *immediately* tell *when* the automobile stopped. Words of this class which describe or modify a verb by telling *how*, *when*, or *where* a thing is done are called *adverbs*.

HELPS FOR USING ENGLISH

Find the adverbs in the following sentences:

1. The dog barked fiercely.
2. The peasant toiled early and late.
3. Ralph drove carefully through the busy city streets.
4. He looked longingly at the toys in the toy-shop window.
5. Jane sings sweetly in the choir.
6. There he stood.
7. He glanced secretly at the stranger.
8. They struggled blindly through the snow.
9. The old man tottered unsteadily along the quiet street.
10. The child came immediately to her mother.



Courtesy of the Division of Highways, Sacramento, California

PREPOSITIONS AS ROAD SIGNS POINTING OUT DIRECTIONS

A small word may do a big service. In our language, there are many short words that point out directions, making it clear just where something is or where it came from or where it is going in relation to some other word in the sentence.

The man stands *beside* the desk.

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The word *beside* shows the relationship between the desk and the verb *stands*. The man does not stand *on*, *behind*, or *under* the desk. The direction is *beside* the desk. Such words are called *prepositions*. Let us read silently this list of prepositions:

about	behind	from	over
above	below	in	through
across	beside	into	to
against	between	near	toward
among	beyond	of	under
around	by	off	upon
at	during	on	with
before	for		

Let us now close our books and cover our eyes. The teacher will read a list of words. Whenever you think he mentions a preposition, raise your hand. If you are right he will call your name. Then you will rise and stand quietly by your seat. The purpose of the game is to see which pupils are standing when the game is over.

OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION

Find the Fire

“Where there’s smoke, there must be fire,” is an old, but generally true, saying that may be used in hunting something besides fire. In our study of words, we can say that “Where there’s a preposition, there must be an object”; that is, some noun or pronoun following the preposition of which it is the object. For instance, take the sentence:

In the *basket* are grapes from the *country*. *Basket* is

HELPS FOR USING ENGLISH

the object of the preposition *in*, and *country* is the object of the preposition *from*.

Watch out for the “ smoke ” (prepositions) in the following sentences and find the “ fire ” (objects of the prepositions) .

From the following selection, list the prepositions and the objects of the prepositions in two separate parallel columns.

“ Far into the night we sat in our cozy blankets under the stars, watching the full moon fade behind billowy clouds that floated beyond the horizon. Here was contentment. Life among the cowboys was pleasant after the dreary grind of work that kept us at our desk studying after dark through the long hours of the evening. Sparks burst forth from the glowing embers, lights flickered across our faces, silence fell upon us, and the mountains caught us in their spell. Toward my neighbor I looked. His arm was near me; I could have touched him. But no, a distance came between us that was beyond understanding — illimitable.”

Did you get them all? There are twenty prepositions and twenty objects. What is your score?

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Play Ball!

The great American sport — that’s baseball! We are going to have a game right here in the classroom, but not with a real ball. What the teacher will pitch to you is equally powerful and has a curve that will often catch you unawares.

The ball is a *prepositional phrase* that is made up of



Ewing Gallo

The great American sport — that's baseball!

a preposition, its object, and modifiers; that is, words that describe it. For example:

The man lived *in a large house*.

In a large house is the prepositional phrase made up of the preposition *in*, the object *house*, and the adjectives *a* and *large*. This phrase modifies the verb *lived*. It tells *where* the man lived and is, therefore, called an *adverb phrase*.

The rug *on the floor* came yesterday.

On the floor is a prepositional phrase made up of the preposition *on*, the object *floor*, and the adjective *the*. This phrase modifies *rug*. It describes the rug and is,

HELPS FOR USING ENGLISH

therefore, called an *adjective phrase* since it does the work of the adjective.

Now for the game!

The Tigers, on the right side of the room, will play the Giants, on the left side. The door is first base, the teacher's desk is second base, the window third base, and your desk is "home." If the first "batter" identifies the phrase correctly, he goes to first base, the correct answer of the next player moves *him* to first and *you* to second, and so on. When three players miss, the inning is over and the other side comes up to bat.

Choose a good scorekeeper.

Here are the sentences which will be the balls or pitches. Tell whether the underlined words are *adjective phrases* or *adverb phrases*.

1. We talked about the flood.
2. The boy beside the bed was unhappy.
3. She came slowly toward me.
4. The farm by the river was poor.
5. They rode above the clouds.
6. The children ran between the pillars.
7. He wandered beyond our boundaries.
8. The nest under the eaves is old.
9. Don't walk upon our lawn.
10. The horse trotted across the road.
11. The man with the dog looked lonesome.
12. The representative from Washington spoke.
13. Give the present to mother.
14. The goat bumped against the door.
15. The stories for boys are exciting.

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16. Our score was below par.
17. Alice walked through the looking glass.
18. The cow jumped over the moon.
19. Among the weeds grew flowers.
20. Promise on your honor.
21. The house near the creek was haunted.
22. Our seats were behind a post.
23. They ran into the house.
24. Men of courage are needed.
25. Around the corner came the car.
26. "Men in White" is an interesting play.
27. They arrived before breakfast.
28. Life during the revolution was hard.
29. Step off the porch.
30. At daybreak we arose.

In order to check yourself on your knowledge of the meaning of the different prepositions, try the following test.

TEST YOURSELF

A. Use *of*, *from*, or *off* correctly in the following sentences.

Write on a sheet of paper. Do not mark your book.

1. The dress was made ____ silk.
2. He took ____ his skates.
3. The airplane fell ____ the clouds.
4. He snatched ____ his cap.
5. He made fun ____ us.
6. He took the book ____ me.
7. She is head ____ the class.
8. The letter came ____ England.
9. He brought the money ____ the bank.
10. The man was ____ our farm.

HELPS FOR USING ENGLISH

- B. Use *on, in, into* correctly in the following sentences.
1. He went _____ the house.
 2. We study _____ school.
 3. My father came _____ my class today.
 4. The lessons were _____ the board.
 5. Put the papers _____ the table.
 6. He went _____ the library.
 7. The sailor jumped _____ the boat.
 8. We skate _____ the lake and we fish _____ it.
 9. The girls put the dishes _____ the table.
 10. He is not _____ the street.
- C. Use correctly *by, with, at, to*, in the following sentences:
1. I went _____ your house on my way home.
 2. He went _____ his sister _____ his aunt's house.
 3. Why were you not _____ home yesterday?
 4. Will they run _____ us _____ the store?
 5. Whom did you see _____ Mary?
 6. There was nobody _____ home.
 7. Come _____ your brother _____ my house and I'll go _____ you _____ the show.

THE INDIRECT OBJECT

Words have many uses. We have learned that our language expresses our thoughts. We have tried to become clear, straight thinkers by reasoning, step by step, from the known to the unknown. Then as our thoughts have become clearer, we have had to use more words and better words to make our meaning clear. As our knowledge of the *use of language* has grown, we have learned many things about the different ways in which words are used in sentences, and their relation to each other and to the sentence as a whole.

We have already been introduced to the *direct object*

LANGUAGE

of the verb. (See pages 87, 88.) You remember that it names the person or thing that receives the action of the verb, as “ Mr. Sampson gave a talk about safety rules.”

1. The simple subject is *Mr. Sampson*, the doer.
2. The predicate verb is *gave*; it names the action.
3. The direct object is *talk*; it names that which the doer gave.

We know that Mr. Sampson must have given the talk *to somebody*. If our thought is expressed in detail, we must state the person *to whom* he gave the talk. This part of a sentence we call the *indirect object*. Now the sentence would read, “ Mr. Sampson gave the *boys* a talk about safety rules.”

1. The direct object of the verb *gave* is *talk*.
2. The indirect object of the verb *gave* is *boys*, the persons to whom he gave the talk.

The *indirect object* might be called the *to-whom-or-for-whom* word. Not all sentences have indirect objects.

Distinguish between the indirect object and a prepositional phrase. Notice that the prepositions *to* and *for* may or may not be used before the indirect object, but whenever it is omitted it may be supplied. To be sure that you have an indirect object, put *to* or *for* before the noun or pronoun, and if it makes good sense you know you have an indirect object instead of a direct object. The indirect object must not be confused with a *prepositional phrase*, such as: *for sale*, *for example*, *to the contrary*, *to school*, *to Europe*, *to the woods*, etc. The verb will decide whether you have an indirect object or not. Study the following examples:

HELPS FOR USING ENGLISH

1. John told the *class* the *story* about his trip to the south, or
2. John told *the story* about his trip to the south *to the class*.

The first sentence is better because you do not have two nouns preceded by the preposition *to*. Note that you can supply *to* before *the class* in sentence one, but it sounds smoother without the preposition. Note also that *to the south* is not an indirect object, but a prepositional phrase indicating direction towards.

3. Mary got the *flowers* for *her mother*, or
4. Mary got *her mother* the *flowers*.

In the above sentences, *mother* is the *indirect object*.

5. I want to get *my new dress* for next Sunday.

In the above sentence, *for next Sunday* is not an indirect object, but a prepositional phrase.

TEST YOURSELF

Pick out the objects of the verbs in the following sentences. Tell which is the direct object and which is the indirect object.

1. The class gave Tom their congratulations for winning.
2. Miss Henning cut Eileen a pattern for her costume.
3. The girls gave Mrs. Sutherland a lovely bouquet of spring flowers.
4. I showed Frank a general plan for the tulip bed.
5. It gave me a great deal of pleasure.
6. Mr. Smith showed father a picture from the north country.

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7. The teacher gave Charles instructions before he entered the game.

8. The happy woman offered Eugene a reward for finding and returning her purse.

9. Muriel made Polly a pretty beach suit of striped material.

10. The boys gave three poor families the food and clothing contributed by the class.

Families of Languages

What is an American? If anyone were to ask you what nationality you were, no doubt you would answer proudly, "I am an American." In a way, you would be telling the truth, but you would be leaving out a part of the story. Perhaps your parents and even your grandparents were born in the United States. Or you may go back a generation or two before their time and find your great-great-grandparents pioneering in the wilderness or fighting to protect their homes from the Indians. But, eventually, you would have to leave this new world, which is called the United States, if you wish to follow your family story to its source, because there was not a man of European stock here when Columbus came to America in 1492.

Your family may have branches in France, Poland, Scotland, England, Germany, Sweden, Italy, or perhaps in Asia, Australia, Africa, Mexico, or South America.

When you realize that you have two parents, four grandparents, eight great-grandparents and sixteen great-great-grandparents, and that they may have come from many different countries, and have spoken many different languages, you see how many foreign nationalities, customs, and traditions have been joined to make that one American which is *you*.

LANGUAGE

Many families can trace their ancestries or relationships back several generations. They can make *genealogical trees* showing the growth of the family. Perhaps some member of your family has traced your genealogy or ancestry. Have you a "family tree"? Find out about it.

Take a census. Would it not be interesting to discover how many different countries are actually represented in our school? Why not take a school census? Of course, we all know that Uncle Sam takes a census or count of his big family every ten years. Now we can take one of our school. It will have to be carefully planned. We shall have to talk it over and organize our workers. But first of all, we must obtain authorization or permission from the head of our school. We want to make a good appeal to our principal, so naturally we shall select our best speaker to present the matter and to explain clearly what we want to do and how we plan to organize our census. We shall make an appointment to send our delegates to the principal. Perhaps our secretary will make the appointment for the delegates. If our school has a public address system of radio, we may be asked to explain our purpose over the radio. If the school has no radio, we shall probably wish to speak in the auditorium at an assembly of the school. This will be a very valuable project, because we shall have so many important contacts to make. Probably we shall have to consult some members of the city government. Maybe we should consult also our board of education which takes a school census and can give detailed help. We shall have to prepare our ques-

FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES

tionnaire and set a time limit for returns. We shall, no doubt, be greatly surprised when the census is completed, and we have discovered how many foreign nationalities make up our school population.¹

We are proud to remember from where we came. In a large city, one foreign group may have settled in one section of the city and have given foreign names to the streets in that neighborhood. In Detroit, for example, there are French names of streets, such as Lafayette, Beaubien, Du-bois, Chene. There are German names of streets, such as Goethe, Schiller, Arndt. What can you find in your own community that shows foreign influence?

Every growing language draws strength from almost every other language. We shall not

be surprised to learn that the English language has many foreign ancestors and relations, just as we individuals have. The English language is no more pure



Ewing Galloway

The names of streets in many American cities frequently remind us of our foreign ancestors and relations.

¹ In the 8B Grade of one Detroit school there were 239 pupils, representing 21 nationalities.

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English than we are pure American, unless we are American Indian. We ought to know something about some of these distant relations of our language. Tracing the "family tree" of our English language takes us to strange places and among many people. We find ourselves among the Romans and the Greeks, the Germans, the French, the Italians, the Spanish, and the Dutch. We find ancestors of our English language in the far North, the land of the midnight sun. We might even visit Russia and India and far off Persia. The English language is, in fact, like a bouquet of flowers gathered from all parts of the world, and some of our words do not belong even to our language family. Let us speak now of the root and stem which form the family tree on which the English language grew.

Different languages often resemble each other. We can tell something about the relatives of the English language because there is a family resemblance in certain languages, just as in people. We often say, "John is the perfect image of his mother," or, "Mary looks like her grandfather"; in other words, there is a close family resemblance.

Let us look at the list ¹ below and note the likenesses in the words of the first twelve languages. Then compare them with the last three languages. Of course this is interesting to look at, but we are not expected to learn it.

We must agree that the likenesses of the first twelve languages cannot be mere accident. For example, the English word *brother* looks like Sanskrit *bhratar* and

¹ See Whitney's *Languages and the Study of Languages*, p. 196.

FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES

like Gothic *brothar*. Changes in languages are constantly going on. Sometimes these changes are so great that a new language develops from an old one. Remember that we are now speaking of changes that have been going on for thousands of years, and are still going on.

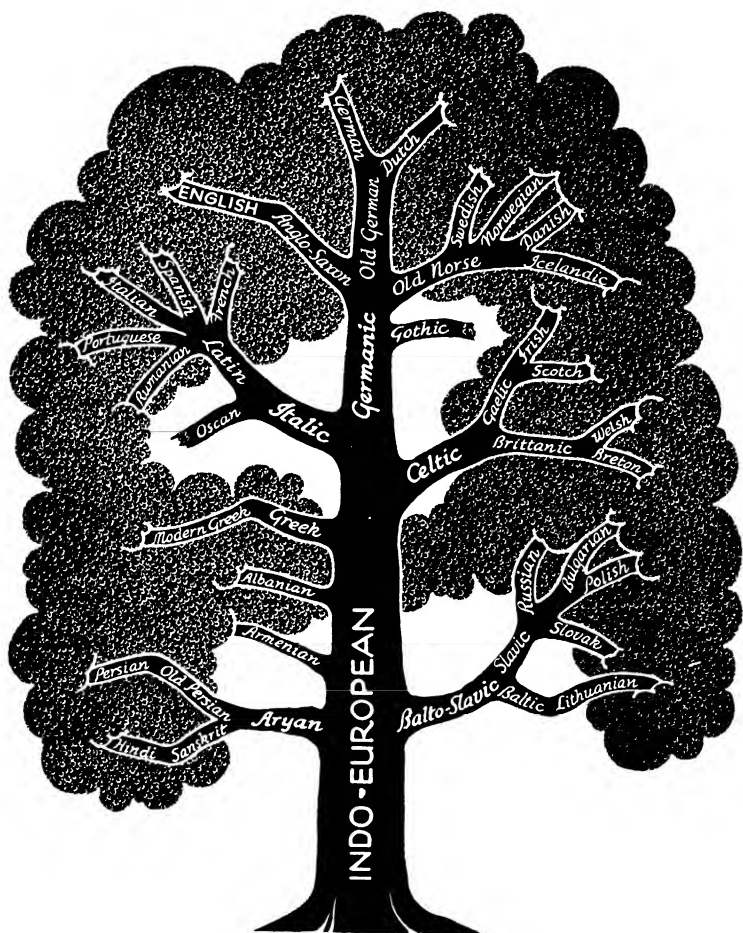
1. English	two	three	seven	thou	mother	brother
2. Dutch	twee	drie	zeven	. . .	moeder	broeder
3. Icelandic	tvo	thriu	sio	thu	modhir	brodhir
4. German	zwei	drei	sieben	du	mutter	bruder
5. Gothic	twa	tri	sibun	thu	. . .	brothar
6. Lithuanian	du	tri	siptyni	tu	meter	brolis
7. Slavic	dwa	tri	sedmi	tu	mater	brat
8. Celtic	dau	tri	secht	tu	mathair	brathair
9. Latin	duo	tres	septem	tu	mater	frater
10. Greek	duo	treis	hepta	su	meter	adelphos
11. Persian	dwa	thri	hapta	tum	matar	. . .
12. Sanskrit	dwa	tri	sapta	tvam	matar	bhratar
13. Arabic	ithn	thalath	sab	anta	umm	akh
14. Turkish	iki	uch	yedi	sen	una	kardash
15. Hungarian	ket	harom	het	te	anya	fiver

It is largely by comparisons of words like those in the above list that scholars have been able to write the history of the growth of language.

Each great language keeps its individuality. The languages of the world have been separated by scholars into many families, although the relationship of some of those grouped together is not yet thoroughly determined.

There are sometimes many branches within a family. For instance, the *Indo-European*¹ family tree contains eight branches, as you can see from the picture on the next page, and the chart which follows.

¹ So-called because it comprises languages spoken from India to Europe.



The Indo-European family tree.

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- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Aryan | 6. Greek |
| Hindu | 7. Balto-Slavic |
| Persian | Bulgarian |
| 2. Armenian | Lithuanian |
| 3. Albanian | Russian |
| 4. Italic (Latin) | Polish |
| French | Slovak |
| Italian | 8. Germanic |
| Spanish | Gothic |
| Portuguese | Icelandic |
| Rumanian | Danish |
| 5. Celtic | Norwegian |
| Welsh | Swedish |
| Irish | Dutch |
| Scotch | German |
| Breton | English |

English belongs to the Indo-European family of languages. For us, the most important of the families of languages is the Indo-European, because English belongs to this family.

That all these Indo-European languages, however, are descended from one parent language there can be little doubt, but what that language was we do not know. Perhaps, as the original Indo-European people increased in number, various groups wandered away in different directions, mingling with other peoples. The language which these groups spoke gradually changed until in time the difference became so marked that a new language resulted. There are, however, certain characteristics found in all branches of the Indo-European family of languages not found in other families just as there are certain traits or characteristics in members of the same family of individuals.

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Some similarities and some differences in related languages. Let us look at the list of words given below and note changes in vowels and consonants in some different languages of the same family.

Latin and Greek *p* is often *f* in English, but Latin and Greek *f* (*ph*) is usually *b* in English. Latin and Greek *d* is often *t* in English. Latin and Greek *t* is sometimes *th* in English. Latin and Greek *th* is often *d* in English.

<i>Greek</i>	pater	phrater	duo	treis	thugater
<i>Latin</i>	pater	frater	duo	tres	. . .
<i>English</i>	father	brother	two	three	daughter

In comparing English and German, we find usually English *d* is *t* in German.

<i>English</i>	dance	day	deep	drink	garden	door
<i>German</i>	tanz	tag	tief	trink	garten	tür

English *t* is *s* or *z* in German.

<i>English</i>	foot	tin	to	two	ten	water
<i>German</i>	fuss	zinn	zu	zwei	zehn	wasser

English *th* is *d* in German.

<i>English</i>	the	thine	bath	that	think	thank
<i>German</i>	die	dein	bad	das	denken	danken

Examine the lists below and notice the similarities and differences in related languages.

<i>Latin</i>	panis	sal	melo	pullus	porcus	ovum
<i>Spanish</i>	pan	sal	melon	pollo	puerco	huevo
<i>French</i>	pain	sel	melon	poulet	porc	œuf
<i>German</i>	brot	salz	melone	huhn	schwein	ei
<i>English</i>	bread	salt	melon	{ hen pullet	{ pork swine	egg

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<i>Latin</i>	fructus	lac	piscis	aqua	bos	amicus
<i>French</i>	fruit	lait	poisson	eau	bœuf	ami
<i>Spanish</i>	fruta	leche	pescado	agua	vaca	amigo
<i>German</i>	frucht	milch	fisch	wasser	ochs	freund
<i>English</i>	fruit	milk	fish	water	{ beef ox	friend

Language has its rules, but there are exceptions to the rules. Sound changes such as these are subject to certain rules, but there are many exceptions. In order to understand this, think how language is learned, how it is modified by each learner, and how it is handed down to the following generation. Language is learned chiefly by unconscious imitation. If this imitation were perfect, speech sounds might remain unchanged from generation to generation. But the imitation is far from perfect. From its imperfections arise most of the differences in individual speech, in dialects, and in the same family of languages. This also partly accounts for the changes in words and meanings from generation to generation.

We sometimes borrow words from foreign languages and then change their sounds to make them sound like English. Foreign words tend to become like the native speech, and strange sounds become like native sounds. Some examples of this are: *Shotover* from *Chateau vert*, *Charing Cross* from *Chère Reine Croix*, *Rotten Row* from *Route du Roi*, *Bob-lo* from *Bois Blanc*, *ticket* from *etiquette*, *gypsy* from *Egyptian*, *Bedlam* from *Bethlehem*. There are many amusing examples of misunderstood sounds. Here is one of them: A man owned two beautiful race horses that he called *Othello* and *Desdemona*, names taken from one of Shake-

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The Old Print Shop

Old Fellow and Tuesday Morning.

speare's plays. The stableboy in charge of the horses had never heard of Othello and Desdemona, so he called the horses what he thought their owner said, Old Fellow and Tuesday Morning.

Another proof of the inaccurate hearing of unfamiliar sounds is the fact that British sailors called the battleship *Bellerophon*, Bully-Ruffian.

The careless enunciation of many people makes it difficult to understand what they are saying. This failing has attracted the attention of the Board of Education of New York City so that applicants for teaching positions are required to have their voices recorded to prove that they pronounce English correctly.

English belongs to the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family of languages. We say that English is a Germanic language because the most commonly used

FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES

words are of Germanic origin. Below are some of the everyday Germanic words we use in English.

the	them	bread	arm
this	mother	drink	hand
that	brother	milk	finger
mine	sister	eye	give
our	house	see	help
your	home	ear	run
his	sleep	hear	go
her	meal	mouth	come
it	eat	teeth	sit, etc.

But we should add that English has intermarried freely with the *Italic branch* of the language family. Over half of the English language today is of Latin origin. See the language chart on page 169.

Are you interested in members of your family of languages? Just as we like to get acquainted with different members of our family, just so we want to become acquainted with the languages related to English. The first of these languages that many of us try to become familiar with is Latin, because, far from being dead as people often say, it is very much alive in its children. These descendants or children are called *Romance languages*. Also, Latin and its children have loaned the English language such a large quantity of words that it is almost impossible to find a sentence in English that is not part Latin. A knowledge of Latin, therefore, is very helpful in studying English as well as in learning French, Italian, and Spanish.

There are hundreds of French words in use in English, as we already know. Many of us would like to

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learn a little French, at least enough to understand the numerous French expressions which we hear and see everywhere. Here are a few samples of French words and phrases in daily use in this country: *menu, à la carte, café, chef, détour, débutante, fiancée, née, rouge, chiffon, garage, chauffeur, hangar, bouquet, coupé, matinée, avenue, boulevard*, and many others.

On the American hemisphere, there are millions of people who speak Spanish as their native language: in Mexico, Cuba, Central and South America. Some of us want to learn Spanish in order to become better acquainted with these neighboring peoples.

We must not forget, however, that German is a near cousin of English. There is a great advantage in being able to understand the language of people who, like the Germans, have contributed so richly to our civilization, to science, literature, and art. Or maybe the Italian culture and the beauty of its language appeal to us, so that we want to study Italian. We know, too, that nearly all of our musical terms come from Italian, as *cello, andante, allegro, piano*.

The more we know about our world neighbors, the better we shall understand them. If we could study all these foreign languages, we should better understand the nations who speak them, and our admiration and respect for their many accomplishments would greatly increase. We should soon discover that in reality the whole world is one big family. Nations, like people, are dependent on each other, and peace and harmony are best for the progress and advancement of the world.

People of different countries and of different races

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have different customs and characteristics. The science which deals with the origin and customs of races is called *ethnology*. The race to which a man belongs is not indicated by the language which he speaks. Not everybody who speaks English is English.

The more we know about the history of our own language, the better we shall appreciate how it constantly changes to meet our need. We have been using the term *English* in speaking of the language spoken in the United States, but the term *American* language is sometimes used. How English came to be the language of the United States is another question which our history will answer. There is so much to tell about the United States that we shall have to stop before we begin because this is not the story of a country or of a people, but of a language. Whether we call our language English or American, it is from the same source, but it has expanded and changed in "the new world." The American language today is a richer and more picturesque language than the English of the Colonial days, partly because many people who did not originally speak English came to our shores to live and have introduced into our language countless words and expressions of their own which in time have become a vital part of our English language. Also, the many new inventions and the great advancement in science have made necessary the coining of many new words. Language, like people and places, has changed in the past, is changing now, and will change in the future.

With reference to the differences in the English spoken in England and that spoken in America, there

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was a statement in a New York paper recently that a British writer, Richard Hughes, after trying for thirteen months to learn to "talk American" was leaving for home discouraged. "It would take thirteen years, even twenty, to learn it," he said. This seems to be an exaggeration, but it shows how some Englishmen regard the changes that the language has undergone here.

An amusing example of *English* and *American* is the story of an English woman who had recently landed in the United States and, going into a department store, asked for a "reel of cotton." She spent a long time explaining that she had torn her dress and wanted to mend it. The clerk decided she wanted some cotton cloth, so she was sent to the yard-goods counter, but what she wanted was a *spool of cotton thread*.

Mark Twain, as we remember, was much interested in words. He once said, "The difference between *just* the right word and *almost* the right word is the difference between *lightning* and the *lightning bug*."

Now that we are getting better acquainted with the words of our language, we should know just how they fit into our everyday activities. One of us working alone can accomplish much, but a community working together can accomplish greater things; so it is with words. Each word alone has a certain value, or individuality, just as we, each of us, have, but alone it cannot do very much for our language. It is in its combination with its fellow words that its strength and value appear. That is the reason why we need to study *sentences* and how to build them. We should know how to use words to the best advantage.

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TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why is the language spoken in the United States different from that spoken in England?

2. Why is the English spoken in the United States today different from that spoken here two hundred years ago?

3. What are some of the new words that have been added to the English language because of new inventions, such as the automobile, the airplane, radio, and so on?

4. Why is English properly called a *Germanic* language?

5. What difference is there often in two words with a similar meaning, one of which comes from a Germanic source and the other from Latin; for example, *conflagration* and *fire*, *altitude* and *height*, *velocity* and *speed*, *ultimate* and *last*, *prime* and *first*? Use each of these words in a sentence.

6. Why does it sometimes take several Germanic words to express clearly what one Latin or Greek word may express; for example, *agent*, *deputy*, *laboratory*, etc.? See if you can think of other words to add to this list.

7. Why is the Indo-European family of languages the most important for us? What makes a language important?

8. How many people speak Chinese? Is Chinese the most important language in the world?

9. Why is Latin sometimes called a "dead language"? Try to explain what this means. Is Latin spoken in Italy today?

10. Is Greek a "dead language"? Explain your answer.

11. Are there any dialects in the United States, and, if so, how do you account for them?

12. Why is it so important to use just the right word and no other?

13. Do all people who speak the same language belong to the same race?

14. Does race determine language?

LANGUAGE

The Lord's Prayer in the Anglo-Saxon of 700 A.D.

Thu ure Fader, the eart on heofenum
Si thin noman gehalgod,
Cume thin rike,
Si thin Willa on eorþan zwa on heofenum;
Syle us today orne daegwanlican hlaf;
And forgif us ure gylter,
Swa we forgifath þam the with us agylthat;
And ne lead thu na us on kostnunge;
Ac alys us from yfele.
Si bit swa.

ACTIVITIES

1. Ask your parents to help you make your own genealogical or family tree.
2. Look at a globe or a map of the world and locate some of the countries in which one of the Indo-European languages is the national language.
3. List the countries in which the Italic branch of the Indo-European family is the national language.
4. Look at the sample of the Lord's Prayer above and list the changes that have taken place in English words since that was written.
5. Look also at Chaucer's prologue on page 205 and list the changes in words since then.
6. Find out something about the languages of the American Indians.
7. Find out the difference between Low German and High German.
8. List some differences in English and American usage as, for instance: English, "a tin of sardines" instead of a "can of sardines." (See H. L. Mencken's *The American Language*.)
9. Make a chart showing how words have been added to our language by new inventions and discoveries.

FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES

TEST YOURSELF

List the numbers 1-24 on a piece of paper, and match the following words by writing the words in Column II opposite the number of the word in Column I from which it is derived, or to which it is related by derivation.

<i>Column I</i>	<i>Column II</i>
1. mémoire (Fr.)	bicycle
2. peuple (Fr.)	ear
3. neveu (Fr.)	night
4. rivière (Fr.)	soldiers
5. montagne (Fr.)	vitality
6. étranger (Fr.)	number
7. ohr (Ger.)	October
8. jahr (Ger.)	education
9. sonntag (Ger.)	people
10. nacht (Ger.)	nephew
11. wasser (Ger.)	river
12. octo (Lat.)	alumnus
13. vox (Lat.)	year
14. vita (Lat.)	family
15. tempora (Lat.)	umbrella
16. alienus (Lat.)	alien
17. familia (Span.)	stranger
18. alumno (Span.)	temporary
19. soldados (Span.)	water
20. educación (Span.)	long
21. numero (It.)	mountain
22. bicicletta (It.)	Sunday
23. lungo (It.)	memory
24. ombra (It.)	voice

LANGUAGE

BOOKS TO READ

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- Bugbee, Lucy M.; Clark, Elma M.; Parsons, Paul S.; and Swett, Don B. *General Language: A Course for Junior High Schools Developed at West Hartford, Connecticut*. Benjamin H. Sanborn and Company, Chicago, 1937; Part I: *Beginnings of Language*; Part II: *Latin*; Part III: *French*; Part IV: *Spanish*; Part V: *German*; Part VI: *Word Study*; Appendix: *Italian*.
- Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*. See under *Bengali*, *Greek Language*.
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Shetland Is.

The Meridian of Greenwich
from which Longitudes
are measured and
Standard Time
determined



0 50 100

250

Your Language and Mine and How It Came To Be

What is this language of ours which we call English? Where did it come from? In order to answer this question we must go over to England and find out some facts about the early history of England, or Britain as it was then called.

The first inhabitants of Britain, whom history describes for us, were a Celtic people speaking a language very unlike the English of today.

About 2000 years ago, there came to Britain from far-away Italy the great Roman general Julius Caesar, who was one of the greatest men in Rome, at that time the most powerful city in the world. What Caesar reported to the Romans about Britain led the Romans a hundred years later to send an army to conquer the Britons. The Roman soldiers spoke *Latin*, and some of their words still remain in the names of British towns.

The Romans ruled Britain for about 400 years, then went away leaving the Britons without Roman soldiers to protect them against their enemies, the fierce Picts and Scots, to the north. About the same time, their eastern shores were visited by the Angles and Saxons, sea-roving tribes from Germany. The helpless Brit-

PAGEANT



About 2000 years ago, there came to Britain from far-away Italy the great Roman general Julius Caesar. He found the natives a fierce, home-loving people. Because they stained their bodies a deep blue, he called them Britons.

ons, unable to defend themselves against the Picts and Scots, asked the Angles and Saxons to help them. This gave the Angles and Saxons a foothold in Britain, which they decided to adopt as their homeland and which they called Angleland. These Germanic people spoke Anglo-Saxon, a Germanic language, which is the foundation on which modern English was built.

A little later on England was invaded by the Danes and Vikings from the northeast. After many years of fighting, the Danes finally made their King Canute ruler of England. Many Danish words came into the

LANGUAGE



Culver Service

When, in 1066, William of Normandy arrived in England with his well-trained band of followers, King Harold met him with his army near Hastings. The fierce Battle of Hastings is one of the most important in the history of the world.

English language at that time. Meanwhile the Angles and Saxons had become Christians and the Church brought many new Latin words into use in England. The English language now consisted chiefly of Anglo-Saxon, but included some Danish and Latin words.

Once more, however, a foreign people with a foreign language invaded and conquered England. The newcomers were the Normans from Normandy in France. These Normans, or Norsemen, had originally come from the land of the Vikings, so they were also a Germanic people, but they had adopted the language and the culture of the French.

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The French language was a form of Latin which had spread among the people when France was conquered by the Romans in the first century before Christ. That is the reason French is called a Romance language. Now when the Normans under their Duke William conquered England in 1066 A.D. and settled there, they brought with them their Norman French language. For some time the French language only was spoken at the king's palace and in places of authority. It looked for a time as though English would become merely a language spoken by the poorer people. Fortunately, however, a great poet, Geoffrey Chaucer, began to write his famous *Canterbury Tales* in the English language. Later the greatest genius of them all, William Shakespeare, wrote his immortal plays in the English language, to which, however, many thousands of French words had been added. But English was now the language of the whole English people, and it continued to add words from many other languages.

This English language, enriched by foreign words from many lands, was finally brought by English colonists to America, where it has again received many new words, some from the American Indians, some from the Spaniards; in fact, some from almost every language spoken on the globe.

In a previous chapter we saw the richness of the English language. It is not one language, but a mixture of many. Later we shall hear more about these many elements which make up the English language.

It is interesting to watch a baby learning to talk. Each day he adds new words to his vocabulary. The

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young child is a great imitator. If the child is growing up in a German home, he will add German words to his vocabulary, and he will speak the German language as soon as he is able to form these words into sentences. But if he lives in a home where he hears the German, French, and English languages all spoken, his language will be composed of words from each of these languages.

Now let us compare the people who lived in long ago Britain (that island we call England today) to a child growing up in a family where first the Celtic language is spoken, then the Roman (or Latin), followed by the Anglo-Saxon, then Danish, and later French. This child would have to adapt himself to each language in turn, and in the end would have a language of his own made up of words from all the different languages to which he has become accustomed. That is how the English language came to be what it is. The people in Britain became familiar with each of these languages in turn — the Celtic, Latin, Anglo-Saxon, Danish, and French. They adopted words from each as they became accustomed to them, and now the words from all these different tongues mingled together make up the English language, which is *your language and mine*.

We hope you will enjoy dramatizing this little history of our language which follows.

PAGEANT

A PAGEANT

YOUR LANGUAGE AND MINE AND HOW IT CAME TO BE

Announcer: We are going to present a pageant entitled,
“Your Language and Mine and How It Came To Be.”

English is not only “your tongue and mine”
But a speech that’s been growing a very long time.
From a very few words, most simple and crude,
Used by barbarians in homes bare and rude,
It has grown until now — but why hurry you through?
We’ll start with the Celts and let *them* talk to you.

Announcer shows scroll on which is printed in large letters:

ACT I

Celts (or Britons)

Herald of the Celts:

On the little isle of Britain,
At the dawn of history,
Lives a fair-haired race of people
Known as Celts to you and me.

Many years they live in comfort,
Fierce and war-like tho’ they be,
And their love of song and battle
Fills their ancient poetry.

[Curtain opens]

Trees and rocks are in the background. A woman is preparing food over an open fire. A wooden dish is placed on the table. Warriors dressed in skins gather and take the food from the wooden bowl with their fingers and put it into their mouths. The woman goes back and forth from the fire to

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the table filling the wooden bowl with food. She uses a wooden spoon in serving the food. Suddenly one of the men shades his eyes with his hand as he looks off stage and then, waving his arms frantically, motions for the other men to follow him. They rush to a corner where they seize crude, warlike implements and then hurry away. One man stops and mutters, "Clan." Another shouts, "Bog," and they all hurry away.

[Curtain closes]

Announcer carries in scroll on which is printed in large letters:

ACT II

Romans in Britain

Time: 55 B.C.—400 A.D.

Herald of the Romans:

Now from Rome comes Julius Caesar,
In 55 B.C.
He explores the Celtic country,
Then returns across the sea.

Once again, a century later,
Romans land on Celtic shore;
Ruthlessly the Celts they conquer
And the Celtic ways ignore.

Public baths they build in Britain,
Lasting roads and great strong walls —
Thus to keep the Picts and Scots from
Plundering their banquet halls.

So the Celts are Roman subjects,
Gone their warlike manner now;
From invasion they are helpless
And to Roman rule they bow.

PAGEANT

In the camps and in the cities,
Where the Roman soldiers stay,
Britons learn some Latin phrases
Which we use unto this day.

Suddenly barbarians threaten
At the very gates of Rome;
And to save her state from pillage
She calls all her soldiers home.

[Curtain opens]

The stage setting is in a Roman camp. A group of Roman warriors are standing around a campfire. A runner comes up with a scroll which is passed from one to another. All show excitement, and then begin to shout in Latin as they move off the stage: "Domum Roman! Domum Roman!" (Home to Rome!)

[Curtain closes]

Announcer carries in scroll on which is printed in large letters:

ACT III

Picts and Scots Threaten Britons

Herald for Act III:

With the Romans gone from Britain
Celtic tribes are in despair,
For their northern neighbors threaten
To come down and settle there.

Oft the Britons ask the Romans
To return across the seas,
And give aid against the Scots, but
Rome is deaf to all their pleas.

[Curtain opens]

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First Briton (seated) : Any answer to our message?

Second Briton: None yet, sire.

First Briton (head in hands) : The groans of the Britons! The barbarians drive us to the sea and the sea drives us back again. Between the two, we have our choice of two kinds of death: we are either killed or drowned. (*Looking up*) Surely the Romans might have listened to that message! What shall we do? We cannot hold out long against the Picts and Scots!

[Curtain closes]

Announcer carries in scroll on which is printed in large letters:

ACT IV

Angles and Saxons Come to Britain

Time: Between 450 and 500

Herald for Anglo-Saxons:

From their homes in northern Europe
German tribes hear Britons' plea.
Angles, Saxons, Jutes make haste to
Launch their ships upon the sea.

These sea-rovers, gay and carefree,
Down the North Sea boldly sail
To the help of frightened Britons,
And against the Scots prevail.

Grateful Britons thank the Angles,
Saxons, Jutes, and bid them go.
But these warriors like the country
And they will not have it so.

[Curtain opens on Scene 1]

Leader of Angles: Yea, my men. We shall remain here.
Fine land! Much to gain!

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Second Angle: But these Britons, will they want us? You know well this land is theirs.

Third Angle: And they've lived upon it many years.

Leader: So much the more our turn. If they resist, we'll drive them to the forests, westward, where there's room for all.

Second Angle: Think you that is fair and good, my lord?

Leader: Yea, and why not? We saved them from the Picts and Scots. Think you not that one good turn deserves another?

Third Angle: And their language, what of that?

Leader: They may keep it, if they like. but the Celtic language will not be for us. This land henceforth is Angleland, and woe to him who dares dispute our right to this, our country!

[Curtain closes and then opens again to indicate Scene 2]

Herald announces: Anglo-Saxon religion. Sacrificing an animal.

The Scene is in the woods. The stage is darkened. There is one large tree in the center of the stage. On the tree is the sign: "Woden." The men are all kneeling before the tree with bowed heads. A priest is standing at the foot of the tree with an ax, ready to slay an animal that is held on a block as a sacrifice to the god Woden. The priest repeats these Anglo-Saxon words: "Field, hunger, weapon, dead, earth."

[Curtain closes and then opens again to indicate Scene 3]

Herald announces: Anglo-Saxon law. Choosing a leader.

The Scene is again in the woods. Stones are piled up in the center of the stage. A man is standing on the stones, and other men are gathered near. The man on the stones puts up his hand and the other men clank their javelins in disapproval. One of the men pulls him down and another man climbs upon the stones. When he puts out his hand, all shout their approval: "Yea, yeal"

[Curtain closes to sound of chanting in the distance]

LANGUAGE

Announcer carries in scroll on which is printed in large letters:

ACT V

King Alfred Fights the Danes

Time: About 870

Herald for Act V:

Sailing forth in Viking ships
Come the Danes, the warriors bold,
Almost all of England's soil
In their conquering hands they hold
Alfred bravely fights the Danes,
But the Saxons are too weak,
And the Danes by settling there
Spread the language that they speak.

[Curtain opens]

The king, dressed in the garb of the day, is seated at a table. Around him are several knights. As the curtain opens, he stands and addresses the knights.

King Alfred: My brave men, I like not the Danes with their fighting manners, but look at this scroll full of Norse words they have added to our Anglo-Saxon speech: sky, skull, skill, want, boon, scare, skin, happy, die, husband, anger, ill, scant, get, ransack. Methinks these words are most suited to our speech.

A Knight speaking: Indeed, with the words that the Celts and Romans left us, and those the Danes have brought, all added to our own Anglo-Saxon, we now have a goodly number of words.

[Curtain closes]

Announcer carries in scroll on which is printed in large letters:

PAGEANT

ACT VI

The Danes Conquer England

Time: 1017

Herald for Act VI:

The Danes are now in England,
And they are here to stay.
They make a pact with Alfred
To live the Christian way.

But after good King Alfred,
Who reigns for many a year,
King Ethelred the cruel
Fills Danish hearts with fear.

Then comes the king of Denmark
To aid the English Danes,
And, after years of fighting,
Canute the kingdom gains.

Scene 1 is at the seashore. King Canute is seated in a chair and his warriors are gathered around him.

[Curtain opens as sound of waves is heard off stage]

First Warrior (addressing Canute): O King! You are the greatest man that ever lived.

Second Warrior: There can never be another man so mighty as you.

Third Warrior: Great Canute, there is nothing in the world that dares disobey you.

King Canute: Am I the greatest man in the world?

All the warriors in unison: O King! There is no one so mighty as you!

King Canute: Do all things obey me?

All in unison: There is nothing that dares to disobey

LANGUAGE

you, O King! The world bows before you and gives you honor.

King Canute: Will the sea obey me? (*The warriors look from one to another in a bewildered manner.*)

First Warrior: Command it, O King, and it will obey.

King Canute: Sea, I command you to come no farther! Waves stop your rolling and do not dare to touch my feet! (*Sound of the waves continues as before.*)

King Canute (*taking off crown and throwing it down on the sand*): I shall never wear my crown again. And do you my men, learn a lesson from what you have seen. There is only one King who is all-powerful. It is He who rules the seas and holds the ocean in the hollow of His hand. It is He whom you ought to praise and serve above all others.¹

[Curtain closes]

Scene 2 is again on the seashore. The time is 1065. Two women are talking together.

[Curtain opens]

First Woman: It was at this very spot on the seashore that King Canute threw down his crown and taught his warriors that there is only one all-powerful ruler in our universe.

Second Woman: Yes, and much has happened since that day. His sons have ruled us, and since they died the crown has come back to Saxon hands; first to Ethelred's son, King Edward the Good, and now to Harold.

First Woman: Yes, Harold. The kingdom has chosen wisely. Harold is the wisest and bravest man in all the land. Long live King Harold!

[Curtain closes]

Announcer carries in scroll on which is printed in large letters:

¹ Adapted from "King Canute on the Sea Shore" in *Fifty Famous Stories*, by James Baldwin.

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ACT VII

The Normans

Time: 1066

Herald of the Normans:

Many years before this story,
Roving Norsemen came by chance
To a mild and fruitful region
On the northern coast of France.

These brave people tilled the farm lands
And they fished upon the sea.
We have come to call them Normans,
And their new home Normandy.

Soon the Normans learned the language
Of the French, their neighbors there.
Took their customs, even asked them
How to live and what to wear.

Now the Duke of all the Normans
Looks across the channel gray
To the land of Anglo-Saxons
Which he longs to own some day.

In the year ten sixty-six, then,
This Duke William claims to be
Rightful heir to England's throne and
So sets out across the sea.

William plans to conquer England,
Reign as king in Harold's place,
And to force his ways and language
On the Anglo-Saxon race.

Herald (still speaking): Duke William of Normandy
with his army is about to disembark on the coast of Eng-

LANGUAGE

land. As you listen to their conversation, remember they really spoke in Norman-French.

[Curtain opens]

First Nobleman: Here at last! So this is England! Are you not well pleased, good Duke?

Duke William: Certainly I am content.

Second Nobleman (to first nobleman): Do you see King Harold's soldiers on the shore as you look out?

First Nobleman: No, they are not here. That's fortunate. Your orders, Monseigneur?

Duke William: To Hastings! Let our men march on towards Hastings, and give battle when we must.

(They prepare to disembark. Duke William stumbles, and his men cry out.)

Second Nobleman: A bad omen, Monseigneur!

Duke William (clutching the earth): No, no, not a bad omen! A good omen! You see, I have seized this land firmly in both hands. We shall beat the English King!

[Curtain closes]

Announcer carries in scroll on which is printed in large letters:

ACT VIII

Norman-French Language

'Time: 1375

Herald for Norman-French language:

As the Normans rule in England,
Norman-French is bound to be
Both the language of the courtiers
And polite society.

PAGEANT

But the poet Geoffrey Chaucer,
In his Canterbury Tales,
Shows the strength and grace of English,
And the English speech prevails.
Simplified, enriched, and softened
By the French, that to it brought
Such a wealth of words that in it
We express our every thought.

The Scene is a palace in England. The time is an afternoon in the year 1375. Two young ladies are seated, embroidering.

[Curtain opens]

Marie: There! I've made a stitch that must be taken out. This horrid thread!

Alice: And mine knots too, but I can guess the cause. Our thoughts are all elsewhere.

Marie: On the dancing party! Wasn't it divine?

Alice: It was beautiful. The costumes were unusual, and the decorations made the palace look like fairyland.

Marie (laughing): I felt just like Cinderella.

Alice: Why not? You were the belle of the ball.

Marie: Nonsense. You looked quite as lovely. Did you meet a handsome prince?

Alice: Oh, no. Did you?

Marie: I met Geoffrey Chaucer.

Alice: What fun! You know the author of the *Canterbury Tales*! Is he as charming as he is wise?

Marie: Every bit. His use of English did astound me. But he praised my English, too. He is happy that we French girls choose to learn the English tongue.

Alice: Did you thank him for the compliment?

Marie: I told him I was pleased and, should he care to visit us, we would be glad indeed.

Alice: I hope he comes to call some day to tell us of his work.

(Noise as of horses' hoofs is heard off stage.)

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Marie: It is an inspiration to converse with such a man.
(*Maid enters.*) Have we visitors, Suzanne?

Suzanne, the Maid (French accent): Mademoiselle Marie, a gentleman is here. He calls himself Dan Chaucer.

Marie: Mr. Geoffrey Chaucer! Wait, before you show him in. (*Marie puts embroidery on table, straightens her hair.*)

Alice: Geoffrey Chaucer! Oh, Marie, I can't believe it's he! Shall I leave? You know I'm ill at ease in brilliant company.

Marie: Oh, no. Don't go. You will enjoy his humor and his wit. And now, Suzanne, the gentleman may enter. (*Maid leaves.*) (*To Alice*) Let us sit. (*Girls sit and fold their hands. Maid shows Dan Chaucer in. Marie rises and offers her hand. He kisses it, bows. She curtsies.*)

Marie: Mr. Chaucer, we are honored by your visit. This is my sister Alice. (*He bows to Alice; she rises and curtsies.*) Please sit down.

Chaucer: Thank you. I promised soon to call, and here I am.

Marie: We are delighted. Alice wants to hear you talk of Canterbury Tales.

Chaucer: My pilgrims should speak for themselves, Miss Alice, should they not?

Alice: You jest with me. I'm wondering when you will write more tales.

Chaucer: When I've heard more. But seriously, I'm gratified that people read my yarns.

Marie: They're more than yarns. They are, in truth, the finest literature.

Chaucer: Your praise is most extravagant.

Marie: It is not half enough. Were it not for you, the English tongue might be replaced by French. You make us all appreciate our English.

Alice: That you do.

Chaucer: I thank you both. You're very kind. And yet

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I must admit that many splendid words have come to English from the French.

Alice: Since the Norman Conquest. Why just a little while ago, I used a French expression which is now in English also. I told Marie she was the "belle" of the ball last night.

Chaucer: Exactly. A fine phrase for a fine lady. Now I must take my leave.

Marie: We'll see you soon?

Chaucer: Indeed, you shall. I hope to dance with you, Miss Marie, at the next court ball, and with Miss Alice, too. (*He bows to each of them. They curtsy.*)

All: Good-day.

[Curtain closes]

Announcer carries in scroll on which is printed in large letters:

ACT IX

The Renaissance

Herald of the Renaissance:

About the fifteenth century
All Europe breathes of art,
Philosophy, and literature.
The movement has its start.

In Italy, much work is done
Which is of lasting worth;
We call this period Renaissance,
The French word for "rebirth."

The ancient classics are revived,
And all the scholars seek
To strengthen English by new words
From Latin and from Greek.

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Two children walk out, bearing a large card on which these words are printed:

From Latin

Navigation

Agriculture

(and many others)

From Greek

Geography

Hemisphere

(and many others)

Announcer carries in scroll on which is printed in large letters:

ACT X

"Your Language and Mine"

Today — 1940

The Scene is a modern room. The time: a Sunday evening. A boy and girl are sitting at a table preparing their school work for the next day.

[Curtain opens]

James: Do you know, Lucille, I learned at school Friday that our language is composed of words from many different languages?

Lucille: Yes, James, I learned about that, too, in our general language class. Even our most common words come from other countries. The word *automobile*, for example, comes from the Greek word *auto*, meaning *self*, and the Latin word *mobilis*, which means *movable*.

James: And look at our table here. Why, the Anglo-Saxon word for table was *board*. John Greenleaf Whittier, one of our American poets, used *board* with the old Anglo-Saxon meaning when he said:

"When the gray-haired New Englander sees round his
board,

The old broken links of affection restored."



Keystone

preparing their school work for the next day."

Lucille: Yes, we learned that poem last Thanksgiving time.

James: I say, Lucille, let's play a game. One of us will name something in common use today and tell what language its name comes from, and then the other will do the same. We'll see how long we can keep going.

Lucille: All right. I'll start. *Meat* from the Anglo-Saxon.

James: Bread — Anglo-Saxon.

Lucille (runs off stage and brings back a large potato): Meet Mr. Potato, from the Spanish.

James: Coffee — Arabic.

Lucille: Tea — Chinese.

James: Chocolate — Mexican.

Lucille: Marmalade — Portuguese.

(An Indian dressed in native costume and carrying several baskets or pieces of pottery enters and stands listening, but unseen by the children.)

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Lucille (continues) : Well, Master James, only this morning we were using Jewish words when we went to *Sabbath* school and said *amen*.

James : Yes, and the speaker who came from Persia mentioned some words we use that come from his own country. Do you remember *indigo* and *shawl*?

(Children look up and see the Indian standing at the back of the room.)

Together they exclaim : Oh, hello there, White Cloud.

White Cloud : Words, words. My Indian ancestors — they bring heap big words, too. Me like wigwam, wampum, moose — Indian words in your language, too.

(Colored cook enters the room.)

Cook : Miss Lucille, what did you do with my waiter?

Lucille (laughing) : Oh, Dinah, you mean the tray?

Cook : I 'spects waiter or tray depends on where you-all live.

Indian : Hum! Hum! Wise words! English heap big language! Me learn to talk him someday!

(Children laugh.)

[Curtain closes]

Announcer carries in scroll on which is printed in large letters:

EPILOGUE

Announcer :

In this narrative you've seen a
Rude Germanic language grow
Slowly, through many centuries,
To the English that we know.

PAGEANT

First the Anglo-Saxons borrowed
Now and then a Celtic word,
Later adding many others
From the languages they heard.

They took more from French and Latin
Than from any other tongue.
But a few words came from almost
Every land beneath the sun.

Still today we are adopting
Foreign words; we often take
Parts of Greek or Latin words for
Some invention that we make.

(Child enters dressed in costume to represent a dictionary.)

Announcer:

We now present the dictionary
Which preserves our words; and so,
Dictionary, we salute you!
May your treasures ever grow.

Announcer carries in scroll on which is printed in large letters:

The End

REVIEW OF HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF ENGLISH

1. What can you tell about the first historic inhabitants of Britain?
2. Where and what was Gaul?
3. Who was Julius Caesar, and when and where did he live?
4. About what time did the Romans first settle in Britain?

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5. With whom did the Romans have to contend while occupying Britain?

6. What did the Romans do for the country?

7. Was the occupation of Britain good or bad for the Celtic population?

8. Did the Romans impose their language on all the Celtic population?

9. Why did the Romans leave Britain?

10. In what danger did the departure of the Romans leave the Celts?

11. Who were the Angles and Saxons?

12. How did they get a foothold in Britain?

13. About when did the Angles and Saxons first settle in Britain?

14. What is the source of the words *England* and *English*?

15. Who were the Vikings and how did they first come into contact with the English?

16. What was the outcome of the long struggle between the Danes and the Anglo-Saxons?

17. Where had some of the Vikings settled before their conflict with the English?

18. What were the effects on the early Norsemen of settling among the highly civilized French?

19. Why did the Normans cross over and attack England?

20. What are the permanent effects of the Norman Conquest on the English language?

21. Of what elements did the English language consist in the year 1100?

22. Who was Geoffrey Chaucer and what did he write? Can you "translate" the lines on the next page?

23. What was the Renaissance?

24. What are some other foreign words in common use in English besides those of Latin and Germanic origin?

PAGEANT

CHAUCER'S *CANTERBURY TALES*

The Prologue, lines 1-14

When that Aprille with hise shoures swote
The droghte of Marche hath perced to the roote,
And bathed every veyne in swich licour,
Of which vertu engendred is the flour;
Whan Zephirus eek with his swete breeth
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
The tendre croppes, and the younge sonne
Hath in the Ram his halfe course y-ronne,
And smale fowles maken melodye,
That slepen al the night with open ye,
So priketh hem nature in hir corages,
Than longen folk to goon on pilgrimages
And palmers for to seken straunge strondes
To ferne halwes couth in sondry londes.

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Adopted Children and Strangers Within Our Gates



Many English words have come from Latin and French. We have learned how the English language grew by adopting words from many languages. In fact, there are so many adopted children in the family that our Mother English cannot keep track of them. She does not even try. She welcomes them all. It would be very hard for us to get along without Latin and French words. Some of these are still “foreign”; that is, they keep their foreign dress. Their sounds and spellings are foreign. Here are, for instance, some Latin words and phrases: *anno domini, ante meridiem, post meridiem, et cetera, id est, nota bene, exempli gratia, dramatis personae, persona non grata, pro tempore, ibidem, in memoriam, ex officio, ad valorem, sine qua non, pro bono publico, tempus fugit.*

We use daily many of the following French words: *beau, belle, encore, ensemble, lingerie, chic, adieu, buffet, cuisine, cabaret, entrée, élite.*

The above words all have a foreign appearance, but here are some Latin words that have not changed their spelling at all and yet they are part of our daily vocabulary and we never think of them as foreign, for instance: *plus, minus, major, maximum, minimum, exit, senator,*

STRANGERS WITHIN OUR GATES

consul, actor, censor, par, prior, data, verbatim, spectator, auditor, circus, etc. Many French words used daily no longer look foreign, for instance: *detour, avenue, boulevard, bureau, parole, coupon, rouge.*

Over fifty per cent of the English vocabulary is of Latin and French origin; that is, the words were Latin in the beginning. Many of them first became French and later became English. But sometimes an English word came directly from the Latin, and sometimes English got two or more words, one from the original Latin and one or more from the French. Here are some interesting examples:

<i>Latin</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>English</i>
hospitale	hôpital	hospital
	hôtel	hotel
fragile	fragile	fragile
	frêle	frail
regem	roi	regal
	royal	royal
legem	loi	loyal
	légal	legal
	loyal	leal
seniorem	seigneur	senior
	sire	sir
populum	peuple	people
		populace

Knowing how Latin words are formed often helps us understand their meanings. Since the English language contains such a large quantity of words from Latin, it goes without saying that a study of Latin words and the way they are formed will greatly increase our stock of English words. More than that, a knowledge

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of the meaning of the Latin word from which the English word comes helps us to understand the meaning of the English word. For example, *transportation* is an English word formed from the Latin prefix *trans*, meaning "across," and the root *port*, meaning "carry," and the suffix *tion*, meaning "the act of." Hence, the simple meaning of *transportation* is "the act of carrying across." We say, for instance, "A steamer is a means of *transportation* between America and Europe."

Many related words may be made from one Latin root. The most important part of a word is its root. In the word *transportation*, the root is *port*. To the root may be attached a *prefix* (a word which comes from the Latin *prae* meaning "before" and *figere* meaning "to fix"). A *prefix* means something put before the root. A *suffix* (a word which comes from *sub* or *suf*, meaning "under" and *figere* meaning "to fix") means something that is put under or added to the root. In the word "transportation," therefore, *trans* is a prefix and *tion* is a suffix.

There are many other prefixes and suffixes which can be joined to *port* to form different words which all have some idea of carrying. The following examples will show how changes in the prefix and the suffix will provide us with many meanings, all based on the same root: *import* means "to carry in," *importer* means "one who carries in"; *export* means "to carry out," *exportation* means "the act of carrying out"; *report* means "to carry back," *reporter* means "the one who carries something back." You can doubtless think of

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many more combinations with this root that give us more words used every day by English-speaking people.

Let us take the root *scrib* (sometimes spelled *scrip*), meaning "write," and see what we can make by joining different prefixes and suffixes to it. *Inscribe* = write in, *inscription* = the thing written in; *subscribe* = write under or sign; *prescribe* = write before; *postscript* = written after; *description* = something written down; *circumscribe* = write (or draw) around. Can you use some of these words correctly in sentences?

We could make many new words from these Latin roots:

duc	lead	mit (mis)	send, cast
fac (fec, fic)	make, do	vid (vis)	see
leg (lect)	read	voc	call

The following prefixes ¹ will help you to make new words:

ad (ac, af, ag, al, an, ar, as, at)	to
in (il, im, ir)	in, on, not
con (co, cog, col, com, cor)	with, together
ex (e, ec, ef)	out, from
ob (o, oc, of, op)	against, out, in the way
sub (suc, sug, sum, sup, sus)	under
trans	across, over
per	through, by
pro	for, forth
super	above, over
post	after, behind
re	back, anew

¹ There are in English many prefixes and suffixes not of Latin origin. For example, prefixes: *an*, *be*, *mis*, *un*, *with*; suffixes: *ing*, *less*, *ful*, *ness*, *hood*, *dom*, *ship*.

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The most frequently used suffixes derived from Latin are:

able (ible)	ent	ous
al	ence	tude
ant	ite	by
ance	ive	ure
ate	ment	tion
ary	or	sion

After making our new words, let us be sure to look them up in the dictionary. We shall see that many changes in spelling are found in words of the same family. For instance, the noun from the root *mit* is *permission*, but the verb is *permit*; nouns from the root *fac* are *fact*, *effect*, *fiction*; adjectives are *factual*, *effective*, *fictitious*, and verbs are *manufacture*, *affect*.

The Greek language has also contributed to our English language. The English language not only adopted Latin and French words, but it also took many words from Greek. Here are some of the most common Greek-derived words which are used freely in our daily speech: *meter*, *police*, *method*, *lamp*, *system*, *program*, *melody*, *harmony*, *economy*, *mechanic*, *period*, *emphasis*, *catalogue*, *apology*, *politics*, *dialogue*, *energy*, *democrat*.

We have formed many new words by combining the Greek root *graph* (from the word *graphein* = to write) with other Greek roots, for example: *biography* = life-writing; *geography* = earth-writing; *photography* = light-writing; *autograph* = self-writing; *telegraphy* = at-a-distance-writing. With the word *tele*, we have made *telephone* = at-a-distance-sound, and *telescope*

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= at-a-distance-sight. With *logy* (from Greek *logos* = word, science), we have made *etymology* = true source of words; *physiology* = science of nature; *zoology* = science of animals; *eulogy* = beautiful words, *i.e.*, praise. With *meter* (from Greek *metron* = a measure), we have *meter* = a measure of length; *thermometer* = a measure of heat; *chronometer* = measure of time. On page 380, you will find a list of English words derived from Greek.

MAKING SENTENCES

A sentence is a complete thought. A word standing alone rarely expresses a complete thought. To make a complete thought, words are combined into a sentence.

We have already learned that there are four kinds of sentences according to meaning: *declarative*, *interrogative*, *imperative*, and *exclamatory*. We shall now learn the three kinds of sentences according to form: *simple*, *compound*, or *complex*.

SIMPLE SENTENCES

Let us consider first a *simple sentence*.

Example: His dog is his best pal.

This is a *simple sentence* having a subject (dog) and a predicate verb (is).

Sometimes a simple sentence tells something about more than one person or thing, and we say the *subject* is *compound*.

Example: *Apples* and *peaches* grow on my uncle's farm.

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Or we may make more than one assertion about a person or thing. Then it is the *predicate's* turn to be *compound*.

Example: The cowboy *rode* the range and *drove* the cattle into the corral.

The cowboy did two things; he *rode* the range, and he *drove* the cattle. There are *two* verbs, so the predicate is *compound*. This is still a simple sentence.

THINGS TO DO

1. Dramatize the one complete thought in the following simple sentences:

- a. Robert closed the door very quietly.
- b. Two persons met and shook hands.
- c. A girl recited a poem before the class.
- d. A boy broadcast the score of the game.
- e. All the pupils in the room stood and faced the door.
- f. Betty and Mary drew pictures.

2. Make two neat columns and label them thus:

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Predicate</i>
1. Robert	closed

Then put the subjects and predicates of the above sentences under the proper heading. In the first sentence, the subject is *Robert*; the predicate verb is *closed*. Be careful not to overlook any compound subjects or predicates.

CLAUSES

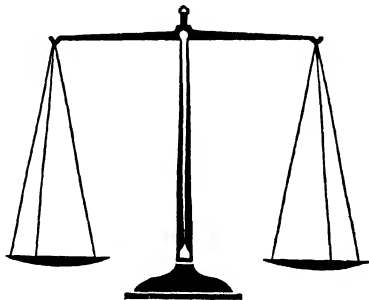
Some sentences go in pairs. Examine a pair of scissors. Is the word *scissors* singular or plural? At least you will admit there are two separate parts, separate

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from each other, but connected closely, and depending on each other for the success of the job to be done.

Some sentences are like these tools. Often a sentence has two equally important ideas to be expressed, each of which is necessary if the reader or listener is to get the complete thought. Let us look at the following sentence:

Mary had never gone to school (*but*) she could read very well.



Here you see a model of an even balance scale. Let us weigh the two ideas in the sentence above, using the scale and our imaginations.

Example: *Mary had never gone to school, but she could read very well.*

Each group of words has its own subject and predicate and makes a thought that could stand alone. Test it for yourself.

1. Mary had never gone to school.
2. She could read very well.

The conjunction *but* joins the ideas to each other.

Since it is a part of our study of language to become acquainted with names for things, let us learn the names of these groups of words.

A group of words that contains a subject and a predicate is a clause. In the preceding sentence, the separate ideas, or complete thoughts, are called *independ-*

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ent clauses, because neither needs any help to make its thought clear. Each clause stands alone. An *independent clause* is one that expresses a complete idea.

COMPOUND SENTENCES

A sentence that is made of two or more independent clauses is called a *compound sentence*.

The independent clauses in a compound sentence are joined by such connecting words as *and*, *but*, *or*. When the connecting word or conjunction is left out, a semicolon may be used to show the omission.

Example: John will do the chores; Alice will make lunch.

Copy the following compound sentences, and separate the clauses by inserting a comma at the end of the first clause.

1. The wheels churned the sand but the car only sank deeper.
2. At noon the games ended and a great party began.
3. The boys must gather the wood or the girls will not cook the food.
4. Men toil in the fields and women work in the house.
5. This lesson is ended but you are not through learning.

THINGS TO DO

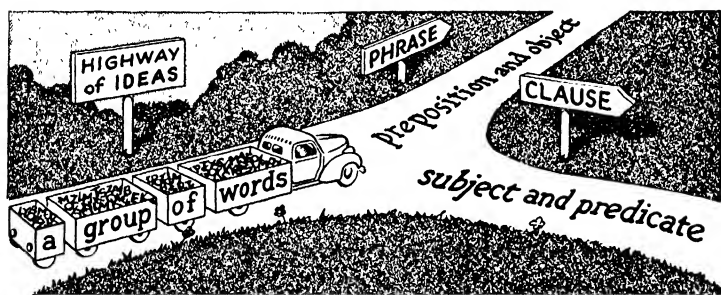
To make a good compound sentence, the ideas expressed must be closely related. For example, the next sentence would not be a good sentence, as you can see, because while each independent clause is good, the two clauses are not related to each other.

Example: "*Egypt has an interesting past, but we are going to have applesauce for lunch.*"

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Let us join the following clauses so as to make five compound sentences, each of which will make good sense:

1. We looked everywhere for the old chest.
2. The boy was too small to understand.
3. We younger ones had to miss the fun.
4. The greedy pigs wallowed in the mud.
5. The foolish child traded a good knife for a broken model airplane.
6. It could not be found.
7. His father had explained the danger.
8. The older children were allowed to stay up until the New Year came in.
9. He was sorry afterwards.
10. They feasted on skimmed milk.



THE PARTING OF THE WAYS

Phrase or clause — that is the question. We have already become acquainted with “road signs,” and we have had a 5,000-mile “check-up.” Now we shall continue our journey on “the Highway of Ideas”; and here we come to “the parting of the ways.”

Here we are with many “groups of words” traveling on the Highway of Ideas. We must decide on a right or

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left turn. Any group of words made up of a preposition and an object with no subject or predicate must take the road to the left; it is a *phrase*. Any group of words containing a subject and predicate is a *clause* and must go to the right. Let us examine the following groups of words carefully and tell whether they are phrases or clauses. This is not difficult once you get the idea.

1. that came here
2. on the last day
3. before breakfast
4. since it rained
5. who left yesterday
6. behind the city hall
7. after dark
8. because we lost it
9. by the teacher
10. which you have
11. under the street car
12. around the town
13. when it rained
14. how it happened
15. from the African forests
16. after the store closed
17. in the last act
18. with all my heart
19. whom you saw
20. although we are free

Suppose we make a right turn on the Highway of Ideas and travel straight ahead on the Clause Highway. We shall be sure to meet some groups of words that are entirely different and tell different stories.

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COMPLEX SENTENCES

A complex sentence is like a wheel within a wheel. It takes a good mechanic to fit one wheel within another. It takes a student of grammar to fit one clause within another. In our conversation and writing, we often insert entire groups of words within a sentence to help express our complete thought.

Here is a sentence: *The man left.* But we can be more definite if we say: *The man left after he fixed the furnace.* *After he fixed the furnace* is a group of words containing a subject and predicate all its own, but does not make a sentence by itself.

We have learned that such a group of words is called a *clause* because it contains a subject and a predicate. Since it does not express a complete thought, it is called a *subordinate clause*. A subordinate clause cannot stand alone. The group of words, *the man left*, does express a complete thought, for it tells something definite. Therefore, it is called an *independent or principal clause*. A sentence that is made up of a *principal clause* and *one or more subordinate clauses* is called a *complex sentence*.

On the next page are twenty clauses. Let us see how good mechanics we are by fitting together one of the subordinate clauses (lettered a, b, c, etc.) with one of the principal clauses (numbered 1, 2, 3, etc.) to make a complex sentence.

Do not write in your book. Copy and complete the sentences on a separate sheet of paper.

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1. _____ the soldiers returned home.
2. Men _____ must be very tired.
3. We cleared the house _____ .
4. Nobody likes a pet _____ .
5. The books _____ were borrowed.
6. _____ the class will come to order.
7. _____ the motion carried.
8. Tell the girl _____ to call an ambulance.
9. _____ no one eats them.
10. We cheered the team _____ .
 - a. that you read
 - b. when the bell rings
 - c. because we expected company
 - d. after the game was over
 - e. since no one objected
 - f. who work all night
 - g. who answers the telephone
 - h. after the war was over
 - i. although we have plenty of radishes
 - j. that annoys the neighbors

We can see that, in a way, clauses are like people. Some people are independent; that is, they can take care of themselves, or we say they support themselves. They are like the independent or principal clauses in the first list above. Children and very old people are dependent on someone else for their care. These people cannot face the world alone. The clauses in the second list above cannot take care of themselves alone. Just as young children lean on their parents to make their lives complete, these subordinate clauses lean on some word in the principal clause. Even so, *subordinate clauses* are excellent helpers in our language, for

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they give all the fine and different shades of meaning which straight thinking requires.

There are different kinds of clauses. When a subordinate clause modifies a noun or pronoun in the principal clause, it is doing the work of an adjective and is, therefore, called an *adjective clause*. Example:

Men *who work in factories* are very important in the world today.

The subordinate clause, *who work in factories*, describes or modifies *men*, in the same way that an adjective might.

If a subordinate clause modifies a verb, it does the work of an adverb and is called an *adverbial clause*. Example:

You may eat the ice cream *when your work is finished*.

Here the subordinate clause depends on the predicate verb phrase *may eat*, since it tells *when* you may eat.

You have arranged the principal and the subordinate clauses in the sentences on page 220. Now tell the following about each of those ten sentences under three headings:

1. What word does the subordinate clause describe or lean on for support?
2. Is that word a noun or verb?
3. Is the clause used as an adjective or an adverb?

We shall find that the most expressive sentences in our literature have many adjective and adverbial clauses. They are important decorative aids in sen-

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tence building. Without them our literature would lose much of its richness and beauty.

We have been properly introduced to adjective and adverbial clauses, but it would be wise to get better acquainted.

What word or words introduce subordinate clauses?
Subordinate clauses may be introduced by the following words:

	(whom)	
<i>Relative pronouns</i>	who	introducing <i>adjective</i> <i>clauses.</i>
	which	
	what	
	that	
	when	
	while	
	before	
	until	
<i>Subordinate conjunctions</i>	where	introducing <i>adverbial</i> <i>clauses.</i>
	after	
	how	
	if	
	in order that	
	because	

1. Copy the following sentences, and draw a line under each subordinate clause.

- a. You have become a real musician since I saw you last.
- b. The poor slave, who was found in the mountains, had to fight in the arena.
- c. As he crossed the long plateau, Byrd made constant observations.
- d. The little gophers stood straighter than ever when they heard her voice.

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- e. New ones came from their burrows, which must have been cozy little homes.
 - f. When his mother finally left the nest, he opened his eyes and looked around.
 - g. The old hermit has lived there since he was a boy.
 - h. The automobiles that you saw on the truck were made in Detroit.
 - i. Early men, who lived in the Stone Age, were often fairly good artists.
 - j. Before books were written, history was passed on from father to son.
2. Try building complex sentences, using the following subordinate clauses:
- a. After the paint is dry
 - b. Whose hair is red
 - c. Through which the road winds
 - d. Who works hard
 - e. Although history is my favorite subject
 - f. Even if it costs ten dollars
 - g. When the facts are known
 - h. Until the whistle blew
 - i. Because we were fond of pets
 - j. Whenever I have my picture taken

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1. Why is English properly called a Germanic language?
- 2. What is, or was, Anglo-Saxon?
- 3. Where did the word *England* come from?
- 4. How does it happen that England and English are pronounced as if spelled *Ingland* and *Inglish*?
- 5. What was England called before the Angles and Saxons arrived?
- 6. What language did the ancient Britons speak?

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7. What is meant by *etymology*?
8. What is a *derivative*?
9. What is a *root*? A *prefix*? A *suffix*? Give examples.
10. Are there any prefixes and suffixes that are *not* of Latin origin?
11. What are the Latin words for which the following are abbreviations: A.D., A.M., P.M., *e.g.*, *i.e.*, *etc.*?
12. Is the *en* in *encore* and *ensemble* sounded like *en* in enemy?
13. Is the *in* in *lingerie* sounded like the *in* in thing?
14. Can you show how a *hospital* and a *hotel* could mean the same in the beginning?
15. Why do lawyers, doctors, and druggists use Latin words more than most other people?
16. Why do scientists use so many Latin and Greek names instead of simple English words in naming their discoveries and inventions?
17. Can sentences have more than one form?
18. What is the difference between a simple and a compound sentence?
19. How does a complex sentence differ from a compound sentence?
20. How does a clause differ from a phrase?
21. What is the difference between an adjective clause and an adverb clause?
22. What kind of clauses are introduced by relative pronouns?

ACTIVITIES

1. Separate the following words into *prefix*, *root*, *suffix*:

advocate	inspector	confection
supervision	admission	dictionary
obviate	submit	conductor
transversal	collection	education
adventure	benefactor	viaduct

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2. Make ten words using the root *fac*, *fec*, or *fic*.
3. Make five words with the prefix *con* in some of its various forms.
4. Use the suffix *able* or *ible* to form five words.
5. Make a list of English words from the Latin *amāre* meaning "to love" and *amicus* meaning "friend."
6. Make a list of French words you can find in newspapers and magazines. This list will grow if you keep on looking for them.
7. Find the English meanings for: à la mode, après moi, coup d'état, coup de grâce, bon ami, bon voyage, répondez s'il vous plaît, avec plaisir, au revoir, laissez faire, hors d'œuvre, noblesse oblige, n'est-ce pas?, sans souci. Consult a dictionary for help in doing this.
8. Find the language source of the following words: alien, age, benefit, biscuit, bisect, president, legislature, influence, passenger, plural, prehistoric, object, predicate, semicircle, itinerary, voluntary, relief.
9. Separate the following words into their different parts and tell what each part means: antipathy, sympathy, aristocrat, synonym, microscope, monotone, monologue, biology, Philadelphia, philosophy.
10. Find an interesting article in a newspaper, underline each subordinate clause, and tell whether each is adjective or adverbial.

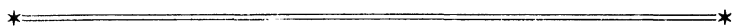
BOOKS TO READ

- Albert, Edna. *Little Pilgrims to Penn's Woods*. Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1930. (German settlers in Pennsylvania.)
- Armer, Laura Adams. *Waterless Mountain*. Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1936. (Navajo Indians.)
- Bennett, Ethel Hume. *A Treasure Ship of Old Quebec*.

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- Dodd, Mead and Company, New York, 1936. (French Canadians.)
- Boswell, Hazel. *French Canada*. The Viking Press, New York, 1938.
- Darby, Ada Claire. *Gay Soeurette*. Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York, 1933. (French in New Orleans.)
- De Angeli, Marguerite. *Henner's Lydia*. Doubleday, Doran and Company, New York, 1936. (Pennsylvania Dutch.)
- De Angeli, Marguerite. *Petite Suzanne*. Doubleday, Doran and Company, New York, 1937. (French Canadian.)
- Meigs, Cornelia. *Scarlet Oak*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938. (Early French settlers in New Jersey.)
- Otero, Nina. *Old Spain in Our Southwest*. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1936.
- Simon, Charlie May. *Robin on the Mountain*. E. P. Dutton and Company, New York, 1934. (Mountain people who cling to their old English customs.)

“East Is East and West Is West”



Language patterns familiar to all help in making meanings clear. Every language follows certain patterns in keeping with its nature. A habit of expressing ideas in a particular form produces a feeling of satisfaction in speakers and hearers. This feeling for a language is usually called by a German word “Sprachgefühl,” which means “feeling for language.” This feeling or consciousness is so strong that it determines the way we say things and keeps us from using incorrect forms. We follow certain models and there is a limit beyond which language may not go without offending our eyes or ears.

Have you ever noticed that in telegrams, where people pay extra for every word over ten, they usually leave out many words that they would ordinarily use, so that unless you understand their object the telegram would not seem to make sense? Here is an example: “House closed wife gone hospital children grandmother’s details letter. John.” Of course we all understand what is meant. How would John probably tell these facts if he were telephoning the message?

Let us have a “topsy-turvy party.” Invitations will be written upside down and backwards. Everyone will

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write his name backwards and say something backwards. It is not as easy as we think. The English language does not follow this pattern. It is not easy to say or write such " words " as *sdrawkcab*, or *gniht*, or *noitativni*.

The Chinese language seems topsy-turvy to us. Of all the languages in the world, the one that seems to us most topsy-turvy is Chinese. Would you like to hear something about the language that is the mother tongue of more people than is any other language on the face of the earth?

There is no grammar in spoken Chinese in the sense that we have grammar in English. A word may be used as a noun, an adjective, or a verb. The following examples will show the difference:

<i>English</i>	<i>Chinese</i>	<i>Literal Translation</i>
Give me	pei ngoh	Give I
Give him	pei kui	Give he
My friend	ngoh ke pung you	I friend (<i>ke</i> shows possession)
I have eaten	ngoh i king shik	I already eat (<i>i king</i> is an adverb of time)
We go	ngoh tei hue	I plural go (<i>tei</i> indicates the plural)
I take a walk	ngoh hui kasi	I go street
Be quiet	pat iu shuet wa	Not one speech
Give me the pencil	pei chi pat ngoh	Give pencil I
Where are you going?	nei hui pin shue ni?	You go what place? (<i>ni</i> indicates the question)

When a Chinese speaks, it sounds as if he were singing the notes of a musical scale. Just as we sing a tune, he sings a word, giving it a higher or lower note ac-

EAST IS EAST . . .

according to the meaning he wants to convey to the listener.

The spoken language, as you probably know, is composed of words of one syllable. The same syllable may be used for very different meanings. In the Cantonese dialect, for example, the syllable *shue* might be a *book*, a *rat*, a *place*, a *bulb*, a *lodge*, or a *tree*. The syllable *yan* might be *kindness*, *endure*, *imprint*, *map*, *lead*, and *blade of a sword*. The syllable *shih* might be *history*, a *corpse*, a *market*, a *lion*, *poetry*, *time*, *to know*, *ten*, *to eat*, a *house*, a *stone*, *to pick up*, an *officer*.

Foreigners often say very funny things when they try to talk in Chinese. An American lady wanted to say, "I am very fond of Chinese people," but by using the wrong tones, she said, "I love to kill people."

The Chinese use many devices to give definite meanings to words that may have many meanings. To help remove some of the difficulties, the Chinese language has *help words*, such as classifiers, for example:

<i>English</i>	<i>Chinese</i>	<i>Classifier</i>
a man	yat koh yan	<i>koh</i> is the classifier for things in general.
a dog	yat chek kau	<i>chek</i> is the classifier for animals.
a piece of cloth	yat fasi po	<i>fasi</i> is the classifier for flat things.
a star	yat nap sing	<i>nap</i> is the classifier for small things, beads, and drops.
a snake	yat tiu she	<i>tiu</i> is the classifier for long, slender things.

The classifier gives a clue to the nature of the noun which follows.

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Grouping together two words that have the same meaning is another method of helping the reader or hearer. Still another device used is combining characters to form terms or phrases. For example:

che = vehicle

foh che

tiu che

tse yau che

che tsai

keuk che

fire vehicle = locomotive

electric vehicle = electric car

by itself vehicle = automobile

little vehicle = rickshaw

leg vehicle = bicycle

There is a fixed use of tones, from four to nine, depending on the dialect. A given syllable may be pronounced in any one of the tones, with a different meaning for each tone; the tone is a necessary part of the word.

The foreigner studying Chinese must learn the names of these tones, and, as he adds new words to his vocabulary, he must learn them in relation to the tones.

The musical quality of the Chinese spoken language comes from the balanced swing of the speech, called its rhythm. A Chinese sentence may be constructed with faultless idiom and each word may be pronounced with perfect accuracy, and yet the sentence may be quite unintelligible simply for want of the proper rhythmical emphasis.

All children in a Chinese class study aloud, chanting rhythmically the words in their lesson. The teacher walks about the room listening to first one and then another, correcting mistakes in pronunciation.

The Chinese written language is very hard to learn because it has so many different characters. We have all seen some Chinese writing, with its strange characters.

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Gendreau

Few of the common people in China have enough education to write their own names. The public letter writer reads and writes for his many customers.

These characters do not resemble the letters of our alphabet in any way, and they look as if they would be hard to learn to make.

The characters are pictures of words or ideas and are called *ideographs*. The meanings are fixed, although the pronunciation may vary with the locality. The total number of Chinese characters has been variously fixed at from 40,000 to 50,000. The characters and sounds for which they stand have no real connection. Fortunately three thousand of them are probably sufficient for ordinary purposes. They can be used to write any of the dialects and are understood also in Japan and Korea, where the languages are different.

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By comparing the Chinese characters to the twenty-six letters of our alphabet we can easily understand why not everybody in China can read and write.

The difficulty of inventing a system of printing the Chinese language is evident. Therefore, it is worthy of note that China used movable type more than 1000 years ago. This was about 500 years before the art of printing from movable type was invented by Gutenberg in Germany, and even before Columbus discovered America.

SOME FACTS ABOUT CHINA AND HER EARLY CIVILIZATION

China has perhaps the world's oldest civilization. Not only are the languages used in America and in China so different, but the manner of living too is very different. This fact has been aptly expressed by Rudyard Kipling: "Oh, East is East, and West is West. And never the twain shall meet."

Explain in your own words what Kipling meant.

By learning something of life in faraway countries, we get a better understanding and appreciation of our own environment and our own country.

Let us look at a globe or map of the world and see where China is located.

The United States and China, separated by the Pacific Ocean, are more than 6000 miles apart. But they are separated by something more than space. Ages, centuries, separate these two nations.

China, the world's oldest nation, with a history that

EAST IS EAST



Monkemeyer

Chinese students in a reading room of a library in Nanking.

dates back more than 4000 years, had reached a high state of development thousands of years before Columbus discovered America. Contrast the age of China as a nation with that of the United States as a nation. How old is the United States?

Many details of our modern culture came from ancient China. From China the world has learned much. The Chinese people have been, and still are, excellent craftsmen. From them we got porcelain or "China" as we call it. Silk and beautiful embroideries, lacquer, and finely wrought metals first came from China. Gunpowder, the compass, and the art of printing were used by the Chinese long before we learned to use them.

Chinese temples and pagodas, with their gracefully

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curved roofs, are excellent examples of the building art.

There are a great many delightful stories about China which we should enjoy reading. At the end of this chapter there is a list of some interesting ones. Read any one of them, and see for yourself how Chinese boys and girls spend their time. Their lives are very different from ours, just as their language is different from ours. The English language has some peculiarities that people speaking other languages find difficult to understand, but we should know our English language pattern, so here we have "Further Helps for Using English."

FURTHER HELPS FOR USING ENGLISH

The Great Verb Highway

We have traveled far along the Highway of Ideas, but our journey will continue through all the years of our education, through life, in fact, for we never cease learning.

"They say life is a highway, and its milestones are the years. And now and then there's a toll-gate where you pay your way with tears.

It's a rough road and a steep road and it stretches broad and far,

But it leads at last to a Golden Town where Golden Houses are."

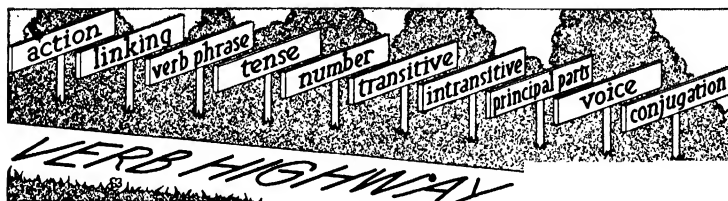
"Roofs," from *Main Street and Other Poems*, by Joyce Kilmer.
Copyright 1917, by Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc.

We have come to many milestones which pointed the way, and we have observed the safety rules which prom-

EAST IS EAST . . .

ise a safe journey. Soon we shall be studying a foreign language, and there are more road signs for us to follow if we are to enjoy ourselves.

Let us watch the road signs and keep from going astray. Perhaps the Verb Highway might look like this:



Watch the road signs.

We have now reached the sign which reads “transitive” along the great Verb Highway, and unless we know what the word means it will spoil our journey.

Let us examine the following sentence:

The old sea captain *carried* a very strange iron *chest*.

Here, the verb is *carried*. There is a direct object, *chest*, which receives the action. We say that the verb is *transitive* because it has a direct object receiving the action from the verb. The word *transitive* was taken from the Latin word *transire*, meaning *to go across*. It is not hard to see that action goes across from the doer, or subject, to the receiver which is the direct object.

Some verbs, however, do not require a direct object to complete the meaning.

Examine the following sentence:

“They *fled* hurriedly into the night.”

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The verb *fled* does not indicate any person or thing which receives the act of fled. No direct object is needed and we say that the verb is *intransitive*. We find that when a verb has a direct object, it is called *transitive*; and the verb with no direct object is *intransitive*.¹

THINGS TO DO

1. Copy the following sentences on a separate sheet of paper. Underline the predicate verb in each sentence. Put a *T* in the left margin if the verb is transitive and an *I* if the verb is intransitive. Underline direct objects with two lines. Please do not mark your book.

- a. A very happy child danced with joy.
- b. Barbara gave her report Tuesday.
- c. The bunch of flowers looked pretty on Elaine's new dress.
- d. The boys hurried into the building.
- e. We climbed the steep rocks to reach the frightened puppy.
- f. The chairman announced the awards at the regular meeting.
- g. The Glee Club sang unusually well this morning.
- h. The bus arrived on scheduled time.
- i. A soft, weird light pervaded the atmosphere.
- j. Dick's new saxophone is pretty, but rather noisy.

2. Below is a list of verbs. Some of them must always be transitive, some always intransitive, and some may be either, according to the way they are used. Put each one in a sentence of your own making and follow directions for the preceding activity.

¹ The verbs here referred to are active since nothing has been said yet about the passive.

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make	speak	think	sleep
write	fly	fall	eat
read	go	swim	travel
run	know	look	learn
call	drink	study	do

OUR NEXT SIGNPOST IS PRINCIPAL PARTS

What are the principal parts of a verb? Each of our verbs has three important forms that we should understand if our language is to be clear to us. These three forms are called the *principal parts of the verb*. They are:

1. The present tense form, as (I) study; (I) do.
2. The past tense form, as (I) studied; (I) did.
3. The past participle, as (I have) studied; (I have) done.

1. It is easy to remember that an act taking place now is in the *present tense*, as *I learn*.

2. An act that happened in the past is in the *past tense*, as *I learned*.

3. The *past participle* is a new name for a very old acquaintance. We have learned about the compound forms of the verb. We sometimes find it necessary to give some verbs a special helper since they cannot express the action alone. Perhaps a verb in past time may need a helping verb, as *has done*, *have done*, *had done*. Sometimes we want to say, "The boy *had done* his work before he went to the game," because the meaning then is clearer than, "The boy *did* his work before he went to the game." Now, the verb form that we use with *has*, or *have*, is called the past participle. It is so im-

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portant that it is called the *third principal part of the verb*.

Let us name again the three principal parts:

1. Present tense
2. Past tense
3. Past participle

Let us study the principal parts of the following verbs:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
play	played	played
hunt	hunted	hunted
give	gave	given
see	saw	seen

EXERCISE

Write the other two principal parts of each of the following verbs:

1. hurry	6. ask	11. come	16. go
2. run	7. try	12. draw	17. drive
3. fly	8. say	13. cat	18. sit
4. swing	9. drink	14. write	19. swim
5. drown	10. read	15. lie	20. blow

ACTIVE OR PASSIVE VOICE

The Next Road Sign Is Voice

Verbs have active and passive voice. We know that some people are always *doing* things, and we say they are *active*. We have heard people speak of a very mischievous child, as an *active* child. But there are also people who never *do* things. They would rather have

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others do things for them. We might say they are *passive*; that is, they are receivers. Verbs are like this. Some of them show the *subject as the doer*, and these verbs are said to be in the *active voice*. Others, on the contrary, show the subject as being the receiver, and such verbs are said to be in the *passive voice*.

Examples of verbs in the *active voice* are:

1. Our team *played* a fine game with the Higgins School.
2. We *reached* the cabin after a long tramp through the woods.

In the first sentence *our team* is the doer, and the verb *played* is in the active voice. In the second sentence *we*, the subject, is the doer so the verb *reached* is in the active voice.

Examples of verbs in the *passive voice* are:

1. The problem *was corrected* by the teacher.
2. Every day the flowers *were picked* by a little old woman in white.

In the first sentence the subject, *problem*, receives the act of being corrected, so we say that the verb phrase *was corrected* is in the *passive voice*. In the second sentence the subject, *flowers*, receives the act of being picked. We say that the verb phrase *were picked* is in the *passive voice*.

THINGS TO DO

1. Copy the following sentences. Then draw a single line under each active verb or verb phrase and a double line under each passive verb phrase.

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- a. Everybody should control his temper at all times.
 - b. The new steel bridge stretches from the American soil to the Canadian shores.
 - c. The story had been told many times before.
 - d. The room was adorned with garlands of flowers.
 - e. At sundown our party gathered in a shady nook near the ford.
 - f. The City of Providence was founded by Roger Williams.
 - g. In due time the incident will be recorded in the book.
 - h. The windows were covered with shades and the whole house looked deserted.
 - i. The plane had been grounded by the officials because it was unsafe.
 - j. Ben Gunn had hidden a knife in the bushes near his cave.
2. Write ten sentences using the following nouns as subjects. Then draw a single line under each active verb or verb phrase and a double line under each passive verb phrase.

- | | | |
|-------------------|-------------|-------------|
| a. people | e. baseball | h. settlers |
| b. message | f. trip | i. flood |
| c. transportation | g. peasant | j. laws |
| d. hunter | | |

THE NEXT ROAD SIGN

Conjugation

A verb has conjugation. Another road sign appears which bears the name "conjugation." This is a good place for us to stop and use the dictionary. If we look up *conjugation*, we find that it is made up of two Latin words, *con*, which means with or together, and *jugare*,

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meaning to join or unite. *Conjugate* is a verb and *conjugation* is a noun. The word conjugation signifies a joining together. *The conjugation of a verb is the joining of all its forms in a regular, orderly manner.* This is sometimes called *inflection*.

When we *conjugate* a verb, we show:

1. Present tense forms
2. Past tense forms
3. Future tense forms

1. Let us look at a model of a *present tense* conjugation:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I like	We like
You like	You like
He, she, it likes	They like

The verb forms are made clear by the use of the personal pronouns (I, you, he, we, you, they).¹

Exercise 1

Write the present tense forms of each of these verbs:

- | | | |
|----------|------------------|-----------|
| 1. go | 5. lie (recline) | 8. travel |
| 2. run | 6. sit | 9. carry |
| 3. laugh | 7. read | 10. fly |
| 4. write | | |

2. The *past tense* conjugation follows:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I liked	We liked
You liked	You liked
He, she, it liked	They liked

¹ See pages 142, 143.

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Exercise 2

Conjugate orally the past tense forms of the verbs listed in Exercise 1 above. Pretend that you are before a miniature microphone, and speak as clearly and pleasantly as you can.

3. The *future tense* conjugation follows:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I shall like	We shall like
You will like	You will like
He, she, it will like	They will like

We notice that the auxiliary or helping verb in the first person is *shall*; that the helping verb in the second and third persons is *will*.

Exercise 3

Conjugate *orally* the *future tense* forms of the verbs listed in Exercise 1.

Exercise 4

Find the verbs or verb phrases in the sentences that follow, list them on a sheet of paper, and at the right of each indicate the tense; thus:

<i>Verb</i>	<i>Tense</i>
1. barked	past
returned	past

1. The lonely little puppy *barked* until his master *returned*.

2. The boys carried many loads of good dirt for their new garden.

3. The time will come when we shall appreciate our education.

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4. Every boy and girl appreciates the companionship of a father.

5. An excited crowd had gathered at the scene of the accident.

6. The Lincoln family lived three crop years on the old farm.

7. Carl Sandburg's book about Lincoln gives a friendly, intimate glimpse into the real life of a great American.

8. You are wasting your time, Fred.

9. Will you go to summer school, Larry?

10. Coke is one of the three most important raw materials used in chemical manufacture.

11. The development of neat work habits will help any student toward the goal of a job well done.

12. As John Greenleaf Whittier grew older he did his share of farm work.

13. Radium gives off three different kinds of rays.

14. Margaret, Grace, and Dorothy planned and presented a puppet play showing scenes in the life of a Roman boy.

We have now traveled along the Verb Highway until we are able to find our way on it whenever we need to follow this road. We find it is a much traveled road; and without this valuable information, we could not use our language correctly. We should often go astray when writing compositions. We shall find these same facts necessary in understanding verbs in languages other than English.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The Chinese and Japanese spoken languages are not at all alike. How could the Japanese adopt the Chinese characters for their written language?

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2. In giving you examples of Chinese expressions we have tried to adapt their sounds to our alphabet, but few Chinese probably would recognize their sounds written thus. Why not?

3. Do the letters of our alphabet make pictures?

4. What are *homophones*? Give some English examples.

5. Does our alphabet resemble the Chinese characters in any respect?

6. Have you ever heard Chinese spoken? If so, tell how it sounded to you.

7. Who was Rudyard Kipling?

8. Have you ever read any books by Kipling? If so, name them.

9. Do you know any articles not mentioned in this chapter that come from China?

10. Tell anything you can about China today.

ACTIVITIES

1. Make a small pagoda.

2. Make a model of a Chinese temple.

3. Make a model of the camel-back bridge.

4. Make an abacus and explain its use.

5. Look up and report on *Ming China*.

6. Report to the class on some story of China that you have read.

7. Tell something about family life in China.

8. Find out something about Chinese music.

9. Who was Sun-yat-sen?

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“Language Is the Autobiography of the Human Race”

What does the word “language” mean? Let us look at the sentence above and see whether we can understand what Max Müller, the great student of language, meant by this statement.

In order to analyze this sentence we must first make sure that we know what the words mean. Every human being has some form of language; that is, a way to express or to exchange thought. Language in this sense has a very broad meaning. It includes spoken and written words, signs, gestures, sounds, pictures, and music. To be more specific, the following are all examples of language: “hello,” “bye-bye,” “Guten Tag,” “ouch,” a song, a boat whistle, a foghorn, a lighthouse, a flag, a cross, a barber’s pole, a statue, a road sign, a red or green light, flares, uniforms, badges. In other words, anything that represents an idea and imparts it to others is a form of language. Therefore, it is easy to see that language is a necessity without which life would be at a standstill.

As we have already seen, one form of language is speech consisting of words. A word may be spoken or written; in either case its purpose is to communicate an idea; it is a symbol for an idea. Our thoughts take

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the form of words and combine into sentences. In order, therefore, to express clearly and exactly our thoughts we need a large supply of words as well as the knowledge of their meanings and their uses.

The state of man's progress is revealed by the language of the day in which he lived. Let us look at the long word *autobiography*. If we break it up into its parts we have first the Greek word *auto* meaning *self*. We know *auto* as a part of the word *automobile* which means *self-moving*. Next we have *bio*, which is Greek, meaning *life*. We have *bio* in the word *biology*, the study of life. The last part, *graphy*, is also from the Greek and means *writing*. The whole word *autobiography*, therefore, means writing the life of oneself, writing one's own life story. Max Müller said that the human race has written its life story through its language. We see why that is true.

We have spoken of life as a highway on which man travels. As he travels along he writes his life story. His story can be found in his language. For example, before man discovered fire he had no word for it. Then he found that fire has a spark, a flame, and smoke. He found, too, that fire burns, it gives heat and light, it destroys and consumes. As man's skill and knowledge increased, his language increased. As his needs grew, his language grew. In time, man learned to master the apparently overpowering forces of nature. He seized the strong force of water and harnessed it to do his work. He captured the lightning and made it work for him. He built great cities, and learned to work with others for a common cause. He found that the universe had

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many hidden secrets and he determined to learn the answers. He sought knowledge everywhere because he came to realize the tremendous value of knowledge. Great thinkers and great scientists set themselves the task of finding answers to the many questions that arose and are still arising. Slowly, but surely, man has learned and discovered the answers to many perplexing questions. All this is evident in language.

The hundreds of thousands of words in our dictionary prove that man has found the answers and the necessary language to understand and explain much of the marvelous world in which he lives.

Progress and the enlarging scope of language go hand in hand. There can be no progress without language. Progress is built on the accumulated knowledge and wisdom of past ages to which is added the experience of the present. All that wisdom is handed down from generation to generation. We profit today by all that mankind has learned in the past.

You remember when we spoke of the baby's learning to speak, we told how slowly he learned by imitating people near him. In like manner, the race has learned slowly from people that lived before. What the child now learns in a few years has taken the race thousands of years to learn. The baby finds his language already made for him and merely adds to his stock of words as he goes along, but the human race has had to create its language step by step, up the long road from earliest times to now.

It is by slow process of growth that language has become in any measure adequate or equal to the demands

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and needs of today. As man's experiences increased, he enlarged his stock of words in order to express what he saw and felt. New ideas call for new words. New ideas mean development and growth. An exact knowledge of words makes for clear thinking. The ability to use language correctly and forcibly means power: power to think straight, power to influence others, and power to attain success.

One important fact about language is that it is free for us to use, but the use we make of it depends upon ourselves.

Language is alive and will always grow to meet new needs for expressing our meanings. Language is a living thing which grows and changes just as a baby grows and changes. New inventions demand new names. For instance, when the telegraph was invented, a word was made up to express just what the invention was. It is a word made from two Greek words: *tele* = *far away*, and *graph* = *writing*. When the telephone was invented it was "far away" and "sound." When a boat was moved by steam it was called a *steamboat*. When a "self-propelling vehicle" was invented, a word was made for it, automobile: *auto* = *self* (Greek), and *mobile* = *moving* (Latin). Aeroplanes were invented and a name was made from the Greek word *aer* = *air*, and Latin *planus* = *a flat surface*.

Words are of little use unless their meanings are generally accepted. Let us remember that a word has a certain meaning simply because some speech group has agreed upon that particular meaning. Some other speech groups decide on some other word. For in-

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stance, the word for *house* is in French, *maison*; in German, *Haus*; in Italian, *casa*; and in Latin, *domus*. In fact, one combination of sounds may be as good as another to express a particular idea, but certain sounds combined in a particular way have been accepted by a speech group as having a certain meaning. Unless their meanings are agreed upon, the sounds have little value. If you want to make a new word, you must get it adopted by other people before it becomes useful. At present we all understand the meaning of “ zipper ” but it had to make its way and to spread in order to be generally understood.

The advertising in magazines and newspapers helps spread new names and makes us familiar with words we may not have heard or seen before. Cellophane, kodak, television, vaseline, mimeograph, and dictaphone are all recently made words that we often see. Somebody made them, just as thousands of other words have been invented and built up, until they spread and have a meaning; that is, they are associated with ideas.

Much of our education depends upon our ability to **associate ideas with words in common use**. This association of ideas is an important factor in increasing our stock of words. What ideas do you associate with each of the following words and phrases: *fair and warmer, sugar and cream, permanent, stopper, Hollywood, December 25, pitcher, park, ford, runs, scrap, right, new, black, speed?*

Man began in the dim past to exchange ideas by grunts and shrugs; today there seems to be no limit to the ways in which he may exchange ideas. Man

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finds words to give expression to all the experiences of life. The ability to use language correctly and forcibly is a mark of an educated man. That ability is within the reach of everyone who will strive for it. It takes time and hard work to become a master of anything. A great violinist, a great tennis player, a great singer, or a great actor practices and works day after day and year after year to perfect himself. In order to become good writers and good speakers, we must practice to perfect ourselves in the use of our language. Thus we may grow to be masters of one of the richest and most wonderful languages in the world.

Knowledge of foreign languages will increase our appreciation of the common interests of all mankind. In our progress through this course, we have discussed many things. We have found out some interesting facts about language in general and about English in particular. We have referred to several different languages and we have shown how languages belong to families. We have seen that English contains thousands of words which are like words in other languages. Perhaps you would like to know a little more about some of these other languages. If you do, you will have an opportunity in the second part of this book to see what some of them are like.

Why study foreign languages? The study of modern foreign languages is valuable for the following reasons:

1. It prepares one for public and professional service.
 - a. It is necessary for scientists, teachers, doctors, lawyers, engineers, journalists, governmental agents.

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- b. It is an essential factor in business as it extends trade relations by enlarging the means of communication.
- 2. It develops a greater power over one's own language.
 - a. It demands a high degree of concentration, and trains in accuracy and precision.
 - b. It enriches the language and therefore the thought of the individual.
- 3. It arouses a keener interest in the life, culture, progress, and ideals of other peoples.
 - a. This interest has among all nations been an indication of cultural progress.
 - b. This interest has prompted nations to learn the languages of the peoples that have contributed to the progress of humanity in science, philosophy, literature, music, art, industries, and inventions.
- 4. It helps to break down the barriers between nations and individuals of different races, and results in a more sympathetic understanding between them.
- 5. It leads the individual to read foreign literature in his leisure time, and to appreciate the great wealth of experience thus opened up to him.

You will become acquainted with Latin and its children, the Romance languages: French, Italian, Spanish. You will see that German, which is first cousin to English, is nevertheless very different from English. You will have a glimpse of Polish, a member of the Slavic family. Then there will be Greek with its rich list from which inventors and scientists borrow names for their brain children.

We do not wonder that people who are so fortunate as to know several languages have a better understand-

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ing of the importance of language in general, and feel more sympathetic toward people speaking these foreign languages. When we go to South America, we do not feel that we are among strangers if we can speak to them and understand what they say; so, of course, we want to know some Spanish.

When we go to France we shall feel at home and enjoy our trip much more if we know some French. We could go on and say the same for other languages and other countries. But suppose we never go away from our own country. Is our study of a foreign language all wasted? Certainly not. We can read books, magazines, and newspapers in foreign languages. We can let our imagination take us on trips to foreign lands where we become acquainted with people very much like you and me. We feel that we know a foreign people better if we can read their language.

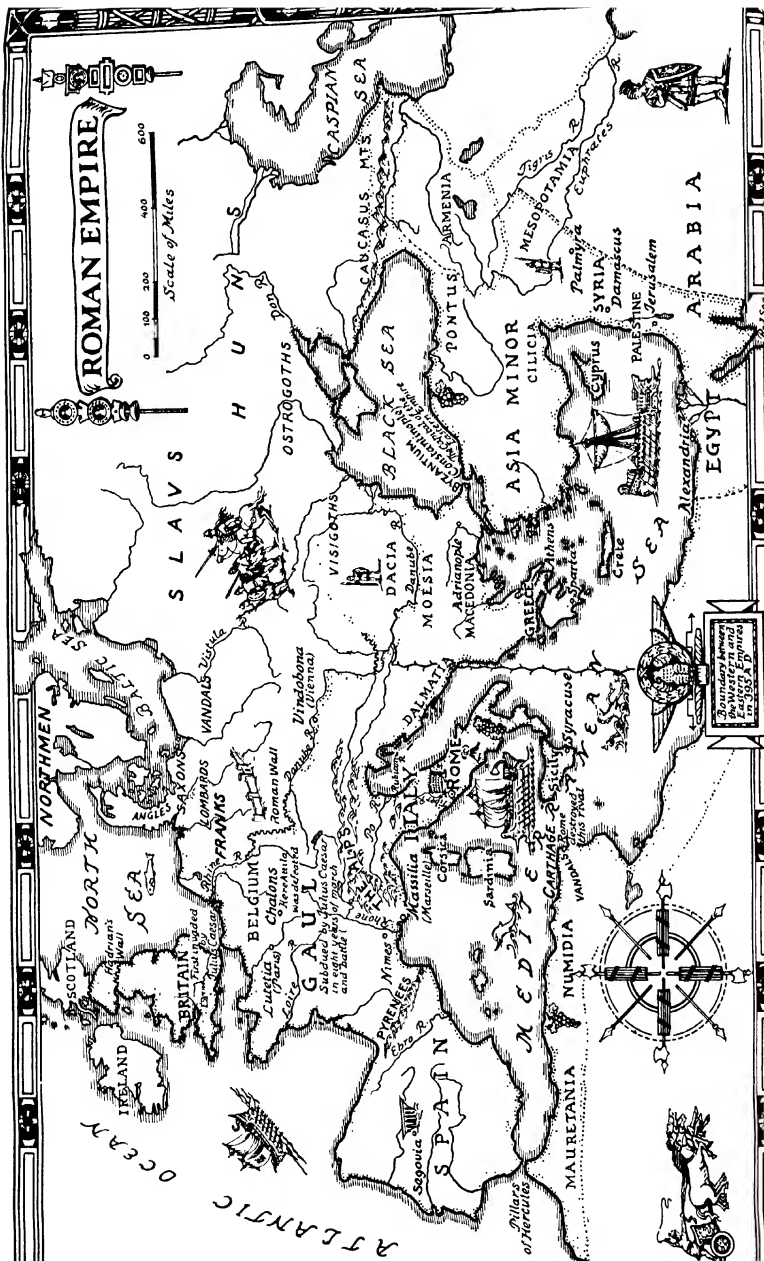
Now finally there is one more thing that we gain from studying another language. We get a better knowledge of our own language; and, after all, that is one of the greatest advantages possible, because our own language is a necessity in our daily lives. The right use of language at the proper time and straight thinking always — that is everybody's goal.

Max Müller was right; man has written his life story through his language. Language has kept step with mental development. Growth in language usage has meant increased ability to meet and overcome life's difficult situations. Language, therefore, is the common denominator in which we work out all the problems of life.

Part Two

A SAMPLING OF LANGUAGES

With Which We Should Be Acquainted



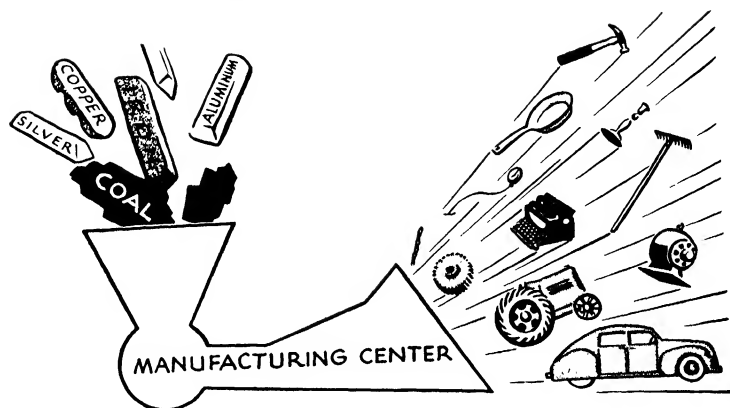
Rome and the Latin Language

★ ————— ★

There was a time when Rome ruled the Western World. If we take a map of Europe and look for the Mediterranean Sea, we find, extending down into the center of this sea, a peninsula, shaped like a boot. This is *Italy*. Long before the rest of the countries north and west of the Mediterranean were civilized, there lived in this peninsula a great people who had developed a fine civilization and a splendid literature. In the center of this peninsula was the City of Rome. Her inhabitants were called Romans and their language *Latin*. Rome grew and became more and more powerful until about 2000 years ago she ruled nearly all of the then known world. There came to her shores traders from the Near East bringing the products of their people. Other traders went from Rome to Spain and Germany and Britain, spreading the Roman civilization.

All roads led to Rome. Rome's contribution to the world may be compared to that of a large manufacturing plant which performs a wonderful service for mankind. It takes raw materials from distant parts of the globe, combines them, reshapes them, and sends them out as useful tools for the benefit of all. Crude ores of

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

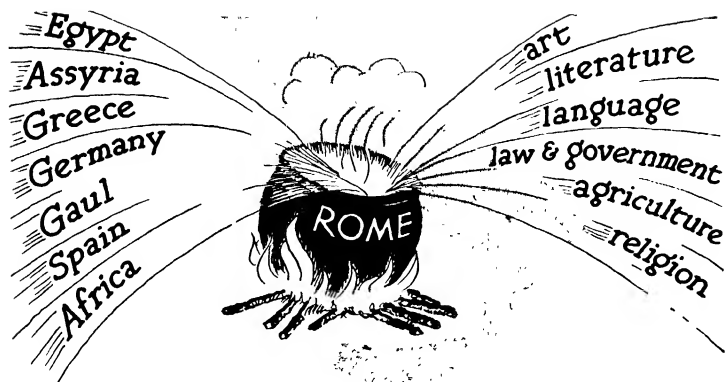


iron, copper, silver, and other metals become knives, engines, watches, and countless worth-while articles used in our everyday life. The finished product may not resemble the crude ore as it came to the factory, but it is the same metal in a new form, made useful and preserved by the smelting, hammering, and molding process through which it has gone.

Rome has performed much the same sort of service for civilization that a manufacturing center does in our present-day industrial life. The raw materials of other civilizations, Egypt, Chaldea, Assyria, Greece, the Near East, Africa, Etruria, Germany, Gaul, and Spain, all were brought to Rome. There these ideas were used, molded, were made practical, and handed on down to the present-day world — made more useful and lasting because of the process through which they went.

The Romans borrowed ideas and then improved upon them. The Romans were a businesslike people, intensely practical. They borrowed freely the ideas created by others, made them part of their own experience,

LATIN



and transmitted this entire product to following generations. Our civilization, then, is descended in part, at least, from ancient Rome, and we see in our life to-day a continuation of the life and ideas of its people.

To the Romans, agriculture became a science. The ideas and tools of the Greeks, Carthaginians, and Egyptians were borrowed and improved to such an extent that most of the present-day methods of simple farming can be considered a gift from the Romans.

The art and architecture of Greece, as well as that of other countries, the Romans put to many new and practical uses. The arch they borrowed also and became famous for their use of it.

The Romans ruled by law. One of Rome's greatest contributions to our own times is the Roman system of law and government. The Roman idea of empire — namely, a large number of people under one government ruled by a uniform system of laws — has appealed to other nations and states down to the present day. These practical people learned early that system in anything makes for efficiency.



Fwing Galloway

The Triumphal Arch of Titus, built in Rome in 81 A.D., as it looks today.

L A T I N

The Latin language has been called the mother of languages. The contributions of Rome to our language and literature meet us in every book we pick up.

French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, and Rumanian are all developed from Latin and called Romance languages. We shall hear more about these modern forms of Latin as we study this book.

The Romans spread the Christian religion throughout their vast empire. In time, Rome adopted the Christian religion and spread its influence among her many provinces. Religion was organized into a powerful church whose benefits we are reaping still to this day.

Thus we see how Rome took what the world had to offer, made use of it to serve a practical purpose, and sent it on to the modern world. To study the language and literature of the ancient Romans gives us an understanding of our own spoken and written language. And most important of all, perhaps, it gives us an increased understanding and appreciation of the meaning of human life.

PRELIMINARY LESSON

America

Te cano, Patria,
Candida, Libera;
Te referet.
Portus et exulum
Et tumulus senum
Libera montium
Vox resonet.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

Latin Proverbs and Mottoes

1. E pluribus unum — One out of many (motto of United States).
2. Ad astra per aspera — To the stars through difficulties.
3. Labor omnia vincit — Hard work conquers all things.
4. Festina lente — Make haste slowly.
5. Carpe diem — Make the most of today.
6. Fiat lux — Let there be light.

The Lord's Prayer in Latin

Pater Noster, qui es in coelis, sanctificetur nomen tuum; adveniat regnum tuum; fiat voluntas tua sicut in coelo, et in terra. Panem nostrum quotidianum da nobis hodie; et dimitte nobis debita nostra, sicut nos dimittimus debitoribus nostris. Et ne nos inducas in tentationem. Sed libera nos a malo. Tibi enim est regnum, et potentia, et gloria, in sempiternum. Amen.

Roman Numerals

Roman numerals have been and still are used in all languages. They cause trouble and difficulty for those unable to read them. Note carefully these directions and be among those who know.

I — one, unus	C — one hundred, centum
V — five, quinque	D — five hundred, quingenti
X — ten, decem	M — one thousand, mille
L — fifty, quinquaganti	

A smaller number preceding a larger is subtracted from the latter; a small number following a larger is added to it. For example, the number forty-nine is written IL; the smaller number, I, is subtracted from the larger, L, giving 49. To write fifty-one, the I is placed after the L, and is added to it, giving LI.

L A T I N

The following words are the names for the numbers from one to ten in Latin. Find an English derivative for each one, and explain its use.

- | | |
|-------------|-----------|
| 1. unus | 6. sex |
| 2. duo | 7. septem |
| 3. tres | 8. octo |
| 4. quattuor | 9. novem |
| 5. quinque | 10. decem |

LESSON I

A Story in Latin

Most of us can hardly believe that the English language contains so many Latin derivatives, words that come from Latin — nearly 60 per cent. But it is easy to understand when once we begin the study of the Latin language itself. The following little fable, which all of us know, can be easily read in Latin if we consider carefully the derivatives in English of the Latin words in the story. Let us find the meanings hidden in these sentences and see how much Latin we already know. The Latin words may look very strange and foreign at first. But before we actually say that they are strange, let us recall that at least half of these words, and there are over 200, resemble some of our English words. If this is true, we can get a good idea of what the story is about. Let us look at the title.

MUS RUSTICUS ET MUS URBANUS

(The Country Mouse and the City Mouse)

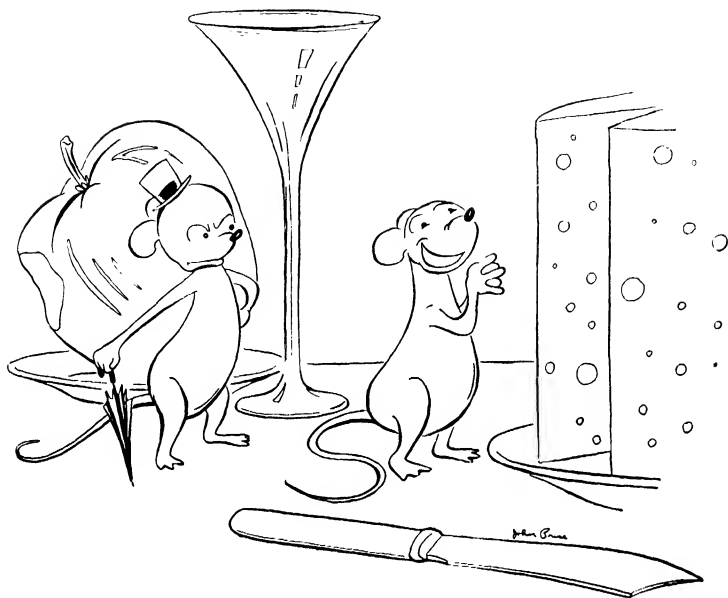
In reading this fable, we shall have to supply some of the articles (*the, a, an*) and prepositions (*of, in, at*).

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

The title has been translated for us, but as long as we know that *mus*, *muris* means *mouse*, we could easily understand how *rustic* or *country* is the meaning of *rusticus*, and *urban* or *city* is the meaning of *urbanus*.

In the first sentence of the Latin story given below, *antiqua* has given us the word *antique*, which in English means *old*. *Habitabant* is related to English *inhabit*, which means *live*. Let us now read the first sentence, "In Italia antiqua duo mures habitabant," "In ancient (or old) Italy lived two mice." We see how easy it is. Almost every word in that line resembles some English word, and as long as we try to associate the English derivatives with the Latin words, the ideas and meanings will come easily to us. Of course, we recall that Latin word order is not necessarily like English. We also know that the endings of Latin words are important because they determine the construction or syntax of the sentences. (See page 90.) Once we are conscious of the similarity between the English derivative and the Latin word, and once we find how to select an appropriate meaning for the context and put the words into good English word order, we readily grasp the method used for translation. With the help of the English words placed underneath the Latin we can get the meaning of the story below. Read it through once and then write it out in the best possible English form. Note that words have not been given more than once. Note that an adjective usually follows the noun it modifies, and a verb is usually at the end of its sentence.

L A T I N



MUS RUSTICUS ET MUS URBANUS

1. In Italia antiqua duo mures habitabant. Alter
two mice lived The one
2. mus erat pauper, et rure habitabat. Alter
mouse was poor and in the country The other
3. erat dives, et in urbe habitabat. Hi duo mures
rich in the city These
4. erant boni amici, et saepe alter visitabat al-
were good friends often one visited the
5. terum.
other -
6. Mus qui in urbe habitabat olim erat rure.
that one day
7. Domus muris pauperis erat non magna. Mus
The house of the mouse poor not large
8. urbanus iudicabat urbem esse meliorem quam
city judged the city to be better than

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

9. rus. Ille invitavit suum amicum procedere ad
the country He invited his friend to proceed to
10. urbem et spectare suam magnam domum.
to inspect his
11. Post paucos dies animal parvus reliquit rus.
After a few days little left
12. Ille desiderabat amicum urbanum visitare. Iter
desired to visit The way
13. erat longum; sol erat ardens; mus erat sitiens
long sun hot thirsty
14. et fatigatus. Gratum erat advenire ad urbem.
tired Pleasing it was to arrive at
15. Nox erat: multi homines erant in viis et clamor
Night many persons streets noise
16. erat magnus. Mus rusticanus erat timidus sed
timid but
17. felix. Mus urbanus erat superbus et demons-
happy proud showed
18. travit ei suam domum magnam.
him
19. Camerae domus erant multae et altae. Viri
Rooms high Men
20. et feminae quae in domu habitabant multas
women who many
21. apparatus habebant. Multi dulces cibi erant
furnishings had delicious foods
22. in magna mensa. Fames rustici muris erat
on table Hunger of the country mouse
23. magna. Ille incipiebat edere.
He began to eat
24. Subito erat magnus sonus. Mus rusticus erat
Suddenly noise
25. solus et territus.
alone frightened
26. Catta magna et nigra in cameram intravit.
Cat black entered
27. Mus clamavit et fugit. Catta fere cepit eum,
cried out fled almost captured him
28. sed mus per januam evasit. Ille non dixit,
but through door escaped said

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29. "Vale." Dixit nulla verba. Ille erat miser.
Good-bye no words miserable
30. Terror acceleravit eum. Mus rusticus urbem
Fear hurried
31. non amabat. Vita rustica erat moderata et
liked Life calm
32. periculo vacua. Ille erat felix esse in sua domu
danger lacking
33. et numquam ad urbem revertit.
never to returned

Let us examine together some of the changes in word endings in the above story. In line 1, *habitabant* means *they lived*. This is a verb formed on the stem *habita*, the *ba* is a sign of the past tense and *nt* is a sign of the third person plural. The ending *at* in *erat* is a sign of the third person singular. Let us list all the verbs in *at*, *ant*, *bat*, and *bant*. Note in line 9 *invitavit*, which is another past tense. Can you find any other past tense verbs ending in *it*?

Why do you suppose we have *urbe* in line 3 while in line 8 we have *urbem*? Why is it *alter* in line 1 but *alterum* in line 4? Why do we have *amici* in line 4 but *amicum* in line 9? Sometimes the same ending has different meanings; for example, in line 7 *domus* is the subject and is, therefore, in the nominative case, but in line 19 *domus* is the possessive and is, therefore, in the genitive case. All of these facts must be considered when we are working out the meanings in order to translate correctly. Look, for instance, in line 19 and decide whether to say "the house of the rooms," or "the rooms of the house." One thing we may be sure of is that what does not make sense in English does not make sense in Latin.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

It is possible to be very exact and very definite in Latin. There are often several English meanings possible for a given Latin word. The important thing is to choose the right one. This need for selecting the right words and arranging them in good order is helpful in making us more careful in our use of English words and constructions.

LESSON II

Derivatives

Let us now list all the Latin words in the story for which we know English derivatives, for example:

<i>Latin</i>	<i>English</i>
antiqua	antique, antiquity
duo	duet

Sometimes a Latin word furnished many words for our language. See if you can find at least *two* English derivatives for each of the following Latin words taken from the story of "The Country Mouse and the City Mouse." Use one of each in an English sentence.

1. habitabat	7. invitavit
2. visitabat	8. procedere
3. ardens	9. spectare
4. magna	10. advenire
5. judicabat	11. longum
6. sonus	12. fatigatus

Let us find in our story the Latin word from which each of the following English words is derived:

L A T I N

- | | | |
|--------------|------------------|--------------|
| 1. unity | 5. relic | 9. multiply |
| 2. magnify | 6. itinerary | 10. fugitive |
| 3. judge | 7. demonstration | 11. altitude |
| 4. spectacle | 8. domestic | 12. janitor |

How many of the words in the English translation of this story do you know so well that you use them frequently? It will increase your vocabulary if you make it a habit to use new words when you see them, but be sure of their meanings before you use them. Perhaps you have heard of Mrs. Malaprop, a character in Sheridan's play *The Rivals*, who was always saying absurd things, because she used words of which she did not know the meaning. One of Mrs. Malaprop's funny remarks was, "He will tell me the *perpendiculars*." Of course she meant to say *particulars*. What is the difference in meaning of the two words *perpendicular* and *particular*?

Let us now translate the Latin story into English without the help of the interlinear English words. If you find that you have forgotten the meaning of some of the words, do not hesitate to look back to find out.

MUS RUSTICUS ET MUS URBANUS

In Italia antiqua duo mures habitabant. Alter mus erat pauper, et rure habitabat. Alter erat dives, et in urbe habitabat. Hi duo mures erant boni amici, et saepe alter visitabat alterum.

Mus qui in urbe habitabat olim erat rure. Domus muris pauperis erat non magna. Mus urbanus iudicabat urbem esse meliorem quam rus. Ille invitavit

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

suum amicum procedere ad urbem et spectare suam magnam domum.

Post paucos dies animal parvus reliquit rus. Ille considerabat amicum urbanum visitare. Iter erat longum; sol erat ardens; mus erat sitiens et fatigatus. Gratum erat advenire ad urbem. Nox erat: multi homines erant in viis et clamor erat magnus. Mus rusticus erat timidus sed felix. Mus urbanus erat superbus et demonstravit ei suam domum magnam.

Camerae domus erant multae et altae. Viri et feminae quae in domu habitabant multas apparatus habebant. Multi dulces cibi erant in magna mensa. Fames rustici muris erat magna. Ille incipiebat edere. Subito erat magnus sonus. Mus rusticus erat solus et territus.

Catta magna et nigra in cameram intravit. Mus clamavit et fugit. Catta fere cepit eum, sed mus per januam evasit. Ille non dixit, "Vale." Dixit nulla verba. Ille erat miser. Terror acceleravit eum. Mus rusticus urbem non amabat. Vita rustica erat moderata et periculo vacua. Ille erat felix esse in sua domu et numquam ad urbem revertit.

LESSON III

Inflection

In Latin, there is a change of form to show a change in use. This is called *inflection*. The inflection of a noun is also called *declension*. Below are models of first and second declension nouns with the names of the five cases used in Latin.

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	<i>First Declension</i> ¹ (Feminine) femina — woman		<i>Second Declension</i> ¹ (Masculine) amicus — friend	
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. Nominative	femina	feminae	amicus	amicī
2. Genitive	feminae	feminārum	amicī	amicōrum
3. Dative	feminac	feminīs	amicō	amicīs
4. Accusative	feminam	feminās	amicum	amicōs
5. Ablative	feminā	feminīs	amicō	amicīs

	<i>Second Declension</i> ¹ (Neuter) verbum — word	
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. Nominative	verbum	verba
2. Genitive	verbī	verbōrum
3. Dative	verbō	verbīs
4. Accusative	verbum	verba
5. Ablative	verbō	verbīs

The Nominative is the case of the subject or of the predicate noun.

The Genitive is the case of the possessor.

The Dative is the case of the indirect object.

The Accusative is the case of the direct object.

The Ablative is mostly used with prepositions or to modify a verb.

In Latin there are, as in English, two numbers, singular and plural, and three genders, masculine, feminine, and neuter. In English all nouns have what is called *natural gender* — that is, all nouns referring to male beings are masculine, as *boy, man*; all nouns referring to female beings are feminine, as *woman, girl*; all nouns referring to things are neuter, as *house, table*. In Latin, words referring to things may be either mas-

¹ For reference only. Not to be learned.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

culine, feminine, or neuter, and this is called *grammatical gender*.

The general rule for grammatical gender of nouns of the first and second declension is: nouns ending in *a* are feminine, those ending in *us* are masculine, and those ending in *um* are neuter.

In a Latin vocabulary you are given the nominative and genitive singular for every noun. The reason for this is that the nominative singular case ending tells you the gender of the noun, and the genitive singular case ending tells you to what declension the noun belongs, and gives the base to which the case endings are to be added.

The noun *mus*, *muris* does not belong to the first or second declension, but by dropping the ending *is* of the genitive singular we get the base to which other case endings are added.

It happens that most of the nouns in the story, “*Mus Rusticus et Mus Urbanus*,” do not belong to the first or second declension. We are not going to learn Latin declensions here. We are merely interested now in noting that the endings of Latin nouns serve to show their use. We have very few such endings in English. To most nouns we add *s* or *es* to form the plural and *'s* or *s'* to form the possessive. In showing the use of verbs, we often add *ed* to form the past tense and past participle, and we add *s* in the third person singular of the present tense. For example: I *talk*, he *talks*, I *talked*, I have *talked*. Some English verbs form their past tenses by internal changes and not by adding endings. For example: I *see*. I *saw*; I *write*. I *wrote*; I *give*. I *gave*.

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These verbs are called irregular or strong verbs as against regular or weak verbs. Some Latin verbs, too, have internal changes. (See pages 281, 282.)

LESSON IV

Here is a Latin story which tells how a Roman boy spent his day. Let us try to determine the meanings of the strange words by associating them with some English words we know. To help us in this, a number of derivatives are given below the story.

A DAY WITH A ROMAN BOY

Nocte puer Romanus in lecto (bed) *dormit*. *Prima* hora (hour) *e* (from) lecto *surgit*. Tum (then) ad scholam procedit. *Magister* eum (him) Latinam et Graecam *linguam* et *scientiam* mathematicam *docet*. Si (if) puer pensum (lesson) suum *ignorat*, magister eum *poena afficit*. Puer Romanus non *lacrimat*. Post scholam *domum revertit*. *Meridie* prandium (lunch) *edit*. Post prandium in *silvis* et *agris* *currit*. Tum puer est fatigatus et *edere cupit*. Post cenam (dinner) in lectum se (himself) *jacit* (throws) et *dormiscit*.

Latin Words and English Derivatives

nocte (nocturnal), *at night*
puer (puerile), *boy*
dormit (dormant), *sleeps*
prima (primary), *first*
surgit (surge), *rises*
magister (magistrate), *master, teacher*
linguam (linguist), *language*
scientiam (science), *science, knowledge*
docet (docile), *teaches*

SAMPLE LANGUAGES



Erving Galloway

The Appian Way (foreground) and the Claudian Aqueduct (background) stand today as monuments of Roman engineering. Like language, roads aid commerce and communication, serving to link distant territories and peoples.

ignorat (ignorance), *does not know*

poena (penalty), *punishment*

afflictit (affect), *inflict*

lacrimat (lacrimal), *weeps*

domus (domicile), *home*

revertit (revert), *return, go back*

meridie (meridian), *noon*

edit (edible), *eats*

silvis (sylvan), *woods*

agris (agriculture), *fields*

currit (current), *runs*

cupit (cupidity), *wishes*

dormiscit (dormitory), *falls asleep*

L A T I N

What is meant by Chopin's *Nocturne*? Explain the remark, "His actions were *puerile*." What do we mean by saying, "The trees are *dormant* in winter?" Can you explain how our word *master* came from the Latin *magister*? What connection can you see between *docile* (in the phrase "a *docile* child") and the verb to *teach*? Try to explain other English expressions made from this list of words and show how much better you understand them because you know the original Latin word. Why, for example, do we speak of *current events*, *edible roots*?

LESSON V

A. What's in a Name?

Most names have a special meaning in themselves. In early times a person might be named because of his peculiar characteristics. Perhaps your own name has some special significance. Look in some Latin book or dictionary for the meanings of the Latin words from which the following names are derived:

<i>English Name</i>	<i>Latin Origin</i>
1. Augustus	augustus
2. Amanda	amo
3. Beatrice	beatus
4. Calvin	calvus
5. Claude	claudus
6. Clement	clemens
7. Constance	constans
8. Felix	felix
9. Flora (Florence)	flos (floris)
10. Laurence	laurus
11. Leo	leo

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

<i>English Name</i>	<i>Latin Origin</i>
12. Martin	Mars (Martis)
13. Norma	norma
14. Max	maximus
15. Oliver (Olive)	oliva
16. Lucy	lux (lucis)
17. Patrick	patricius
18. Stella	stella
19. Valentine	valens
20. Vivian	vivus

LESSON V

B. Borrowed Words

Each word in Column II is defined in Column I. Find the letter which precedes its correct meaning in Column I.

<i>Column I</i>	<i>Column II</i>
a. One who judges	1. animus
b. Food for nourishment	2. focus
c. Platform for speakers	3. nucleus
d. A graduate	4. syllabus
e. An incentive	5. arbiter
f. A thin fluid	6. asylum
g. Group of singers	7. serum
h. A place of refuge	8. mausoleum
i. Force of motion	9. delirium
j. Meeting point	10. rostrum
k. Suspended weight	11. momentum
l. Kind of madness	12. pendulum
m. Place for exhibits	13. data
n. A legal postponement	14. pabulum
o. The center	15. stimulus
p. A plant	16. odium
q. Hate	17. museum

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Column I

- r. Given facts
- s. Germs
- t. Strong spirit
- u. Stately tomb
- v. An outline

Column II

- 18. chorus
- 19. fungus
- 20. moratorium

LESSON VI

A. Latin in Action

Below are a number of Latin imperatives or commands. The teacher will read each of them and act it out. Pay close attention and be able to do the same when you hear any of these commands given to you in Latin.

- 1. Surge e tua sella.
- 2. Sta ad sellam.
- 3. Procede ad tabulam nigram.
- 4. Cape cretam
- 5. Scribe tuum nomen
- 6. Ambula ad ianuam.
- 7. Aperi ianuam.
- 8. Claude ianuam.
- 9. Conside in sella.
- 10. Sume librum.

LESSON VI

B. Writing in Latin

In this lesson we find the Latin names for many of the objects in our schoolroom as well as other words. Let us see how many Latin sentences we can write by using these words.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

<i>Latin</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>Latin</i>	<i>English</i>
camera	room	sella	seat, chair
charta	paper	magna	large
creta	chalk	parva	small
mensa	table	alta	high
pictura	picture	brevis	short
fenestra	window	femina	woman
tabula	board	nigra	black
in	in, on	hic	here
est	is	illic	there
sunt	are	non	not
et	and	puella	girl
alba	white	schola	school
ianua	door	multae	many

Let us write some of these sentences on the board to see if the class can understand them.

LESSON VII

A. Latin and Greek in Geography

Many of our American ancestors were so familiar with the literature of Italy and Greece that they used well-known classical names for their villages, towns, and cities all over our broad land. This is constantly brought to our attention whenever we look at a map of any one of our American states. The map of Michigan, which is crowded with French and Indian names, contains also a surprising number of Latin and Greek names.

Locate the following named places on the map of Michigan and suggest the possible reason for the choice of the name.

L A T I N

- | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|---------------|
| 1. Alpha | 10. Pompeii | 18. Novi |
| 2. Constantine | 11. Homer | 19. Leoni |
| 3. Fabius | 12. Aurelius | 20. Orion |
| 4. Ravenna | 13. Rome Center | 21. Atlas |
| 5. Sparta | 14. Cadmus | 22. Clio |
| 6. Arcadia | 15. Athens | 23. Avoca |
| 7. Titus | 16. Dexter | 24. Marcellus |
| 8. Ithaca | 17. Romulus | 25. Solon |
| 9. Alma | | |

LESSON VII

B. Words from the Names of the Gods

Most of the following words are taken or derived from the names of the gods whom the Romans and Greeks worshiped before they became Christians. In our dictionaries, we can find both the meanings and derivations of the words.

- | | | |
|--------------|---------------|---------------|
| 1. cereal | 7. satiric | 13. graceful |
| 2. phaeton | 8. echo | 14. cynosure |
| 3. January | 9. martian | 15. mercurial |
| 4. herculean | 10. saturnine | 16. martial |
| 5. olympian | 11. hydrant | 17. vulcanize |
| 6. calliope | 12. panic | 18. tantalize |

LESSON VIII

A. Talking in Myths

The names of and the ideas connected with the Greek and Roman gods and goddesses are often used and referred to in modern writings. If the underlined names given below are not familiar to you, look them up in the dictionary. A Roman boy or girl would have no trouble in understanding all of them.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

1. Here comes Jupiter Pluvius.
2. By Jove!
3. The wise owl of Athens.
4. As proud as Juno.
5. The field of Mars.
6. The Venus of America.
7. He was an Apollo.
8. A Diana in the woods.
9. Fleet-footed Mercury.
10. The forge of Vulcan.
11. The steeds of Pluto.
12. The trident of Neptune.
13. An herculean task.
14. He moved his Lares and Penates.

Look in newspapers and magazines for allusions to these gods and goddesses. See how many you can find.

LESSON VIII

B. Latin in Advertising

The following Latin derived words are the names descriptive of products advertised on the market today. Let us see if we can match them up correctly with the names of the products in the second column.

- | | |
|---------------|----------------|
| 1. Fenestra | a. typewriter |
| 2. Atlas | b. soap flakes |
| 3. Magnavox | c. flower |
| 4. Lux | d. cement |
| 5. Vitalis | e. insecticide |
| 6. Aquascutum | f. camera |
| 7. Gladiolus | g. loudspeaker |

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- | | |
|------------|-----------------------|
| 8. Larvex | h. raincoat |
| 9. Velox | i. photographic paper |
| 10. Corona | j. hair tonic |
| | k. windows |

SUPPLEMENTARY LESSON

Latin Roots

Let us go back to page 210, where we discussed Latin roots, prefixes, and suffixes. The *root* is the most important part of a word because it gives the basic meaning of the word. Since it is from the infinitive and past participle of the Latin verb that the English words are formed, we shall give these forms in the list which follows.

Latin Verbs ¹

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
1. agere	actum	to do, drive
2. audire	auditum	to hear
3. cadere	casum	to fall
4. capere	captum	to take, hold
5. cedere	cessum	to go, yield
6. claudere	clausum	to shut
7. credere	creditum	to believe
8. dicere	dictum	to say
9. docere	doctum	to teach
10. ducere	ductum	to lead
11. facere	factum	to do, make
12. ferre	latum	to bear, carry
13. gradi	gressus	to step, walk
14. jacere	jactum	to throw, cast
15. jungere	junctum	to join
16. legere	lectum	to read, select
17. mittere	missum	to send

¹ For reference only. Not to be learned.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
18. movere	motum	to move
19. pendere	pensum	to weigh, pay out
20. ponere	positum	to put, place
21. portare	portatum	to carry
22. scribere	scriptum	to write
23. spectare	spectatum	to look, see
24. stare	statum	to stand
25. tangere	tactum	to touch
26. tendere	tentum	to stretch, try
27. venire	ventum	to come
28. vertere	versum	to turn
29. videre	visum	to see
30. vocare	vocatum	to call

Below is a list of Latin words (not verbs) from which many English words are derived.

<i>Latin Word</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Latin Word</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
1. altus	high	14. mens	mind
2. annus	year	15. multus	much
3. bene	well	16. opus (operis)	work
4. centum	hundred	17. pes (pedis)	foot
5. civis	citizen	18. signum	sign
6. corpus	body	19. solus	alone
7. dies	day	20. tempus	time
8. duo	two	(temporis)	
9. durus	hard	21. terra	earth
10. lex (legis)	law	22. unus	one
11. littera	letter	23. urbs	city
12. locus	place	24. vir	man
13. manus	hand	25. vox	voice

Prefixes ¹

The following is a list of the most commonly used Latin prefixes. These prefixes are of two kinds: those

¹ For reference only. Not to be learned.

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which have only one form, and those which have a variety of forms. (In the following list, variations are also indicated.) These prefixes are illustrated in the list which follows:

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Usual Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
a, ab	from or away	ab-solve, ab-dicate
ad	to	ad-vocation, ad-mit
a		a-scend
ac		ac-cede
af		af-fix
ag		ag-grieve
al		al-lude
an		an-nex
ap		ap-pend
ar		ar-rive
as		as-sist
at		at-tract
contra	against	contra-dict, contra-vene
contro		contro-versy
counter		counter-act
circum	around	circum-spect, circum-stance
com	with or to-	com-pound
con	gether	con-nect
co		co-here
col		col-lapse
com		com-merce
cor		cor-relative
de	from	de-camp, de-bate
dis	asunder	dis-pel, dis-please
di		di-vert
dif		dif-fer
ex	out or from	ex-clude, ex-port
e		e-vade
ec		ec-centric
ef		ef-fort

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Usual Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
in	in, into, on (in nouns and verbs)	in-clude
il		il-luminate
im		im-bibe
ir		ir-rigate
in	not (in adjectives and nouns)	in-capable
il		il-legal
im		im-mortal
ir		ir-regular
inter	between, among	inter-national, inter-mediate
intro	within	intro-spection, intro-duce
non	not	non-essential, non-sense
ob	against or out, to, toward	ob-ject
o		o-mit
oc		oc-cur
of		of-fer
op		op-press
per	through, by means of, throughout	per-ennial, per-force
post	after, behind	post-pone, post-mortem
pre	before	pre-dict, pre-pare
pro	for or forth	pro-noun, pro-gress
re	back or aim	re-pel, re-view
se	apart, aside	se-lect, se-cede
sub	under or after	sub-scribe, sub-sequent
suc		suc-ceed
suf		suf-fix
sug		sug-gest
sum		sum-mon

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<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Usual Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
sup		sup-pose
sus		sus-tain
super	above	super-sede, super-intendent
trans	across, beyond	trans-gress, trans-fer

EXERCISES

1. Separate the words below into roots and prefixes. Note the spelling and the original meaning of the root.

Examples:

Illiterate: il = not, littera = letter: one who does not know his letters.

Exception: ex = out, capere = to take: taken out from the rest.

- | | | |
|-----------------|---------------|----------------|
| a. inclusive | e. permit | i. accept |
| b. subscription | f. effect | j. revision |
| c. conversation | g. preference | k. conjunction |
| d. postpone | h. production | l. suffix |

2. Give the original meaning of:

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| a. manufacture | f. contradict |
| b. introduce | g. prevention |
| c. biennial | h. objection |
| d. prescribe | i. co-operation |
| e. circumspect | j. benefactor |

3. Make a list of words from each of the following roots by supplying prefixes:

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------|
| a. port | f. dic, dict |
| b. mit, mis | g. duc, duct |
| c. vid, vis | h. leg, lect |
| d. scrib, script | i. voc |
| e. fac, fic, fect | j. ag, act |

4. With the following prefixes, make up a list of words that you know:

- | | | | | |
|--------|--------|--------|----------|----------|
| a. ad | c. dis | e. in | g. pro | i. trans |
| b. com | d. ex | f. non | h. super | j. sub |

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

Has this brief study of Latin in English shown that we owe a great debt to Rome? Not only our language, but our government and our laws, our literature, our culture, and our everyday lives have been influenced by Rome and her wonderful civilization. No wonder that Rome is called "The Eternal City."

WHY STUDY LATIN?

Let us consider some reasons why American boys and girls should study Latin:

Latin helps to acquire a command of English. The fact that more than half of the words in the English language are of Latin origin makes Latin a study of great linguistic value. Here we are studying English at its source, and we can understand more clearly the origin, form, and meaning of many English words. Thus does it give an insight into the structure of language and help in spelling English words. Work in translating from Latin to English is a training in thought-relation and requires a careful correlation of words and thoughts, as well as accuracy and precision. Such correlation cultivates the power to grasp the thoughts of others, and to express one's own thoughts. Finally, a knowledge of the rules of Latin grammar and the ability to use them will make work in English grammar much easier.

Latin trains for professional studies. It is of practical value in law, medicine, engineering, pharmacy, science, theology, business, and for inventors.

Latin is a guide to good citizenship. The study of Roman civilization, government, laws, and moral and

L A T I N

social attitudes helps in developing right attitudes toward social situations in our own country, and leads to a better understanding of governmental and social problems.

Latin furnishes the individual with a rich background for cultural development. Its value as a cultural agency is obvious when we recall the numerous allusions in English literature to things Roman — history, institutions, mythology, religion, art, and literature. Latin is a key to some of the greatest minds of all times, and he who holds it has access to certain worthwhile interests which will make him a better member of society.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The origin of the Latin language.
2. The story of the founding of Rome.
3. The story of Romulus and Remus.
4. Why the language of the Romans was called Latin.
5. How Latin came to spread and how the Romance languages developed.
6. Why the study of Latin is so valuable.
7. How English happens to have so many Latin words in its vocabulary.
8. Why is Latin still used in the Catholic Church?
9. Tell something about (1) Julius Caesar, (2) Cicero, (3) Vergil, (4) Augustus.
10. Tell something about early life in Rome.
11. What are the first words of Vergil's *Aeneid*?
12. What was the *Pantheon* in ancient Rome? What is it today?
13. How did the Romans use family names?
14. The story of (1) the Roman Forum, (2) the Colosseum, (3) the Aqueducts, (4) the Appian Way.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

15. Why is Rome called the *Eternal City*?
16. How does a Latin sentence differ from an English one?
17. What is the difference between *import* and *export*?
Include and *exclude*?
18. What are some of the many things that the modern world owes to Rome?

ACTIVITIES

1. Make a map of Italy and on it locate Rome.
2. Make a map of Rome and the Seven Hills and show why its location was so important.
3. Learn the Lord's Prayer in Latin.
4. Find the Latin mottoes of some of our states.
5. Find ten Latin phrases or proverbs in frequent use.
(See the dictionary.)
6. List in a notebook some Latin words in use in English.
7. Find names used in American advertising that are derived from Latin.
8. Make a list of Roman gods and goddesses and what they stood for.
9. Read some of the Roman myths and legends and report to the class.
10. Show how words may be divided into roots, prefixes, and suffixes and explain how this helps us to learn to spell.
11. Dress dolls in Roman dress.
12. Have a Roman banquet.
13. Make models of Roman weapons, chariots, arches, etc.
14. Learn some well-known Latin songs.
15. Make a crossword puzzle using Latin words.
16. Read the Preamble to the American Constitution and underline all words of Latin origin. Read it again

LATIN

leaving out the Latin words and see how much meaning is left.

17. With the aid of the roots and the prefixes on pages 281–284, make and keep lists of English words derived from Latin verbs or other words which you have found in newspapers and books.

TEST

DIRECTIONS: Below in Column I, you will find a list of English words and in Column II a list of Latin words. For each Latin word, there is an English word formed from the same *root*. Find the Latin word in Column II which corresponds to each English word. Example:

1. Conjectum (because *objection* contains the same root as *conjectum*.)

Column I (English)

1. objection
2. transportation
3. deduction
4. migratory
5. missionary
6. description
7. convenient
8. convert
9. extract
10. revival
11. evolution
12. reference
13. resist
14. reflection
15. defect
16. disposition
17. reaction
18. dictionary
19. intellect
20. suspense
21. subordinate

Column II (Latin)

- a. emigratum
- b. commissum
- c. convenio
- d. lectum
- e. conjectum
- f. contractum
- g. ordinatum
- h. edictum
- i. reductum
- j. consistere
- k. confectus
- l. inflexum
- m. revertere
- n. expositum
- o. vivere
- p. actum
- q. pensum
- r. scriptum
- s. portabilis
- t. conferre
- u. revolutum
- v. opere



France and the French Language

=====

From the Latin language used by the Romans, we get the Romance languages. When we were speaking of the *families of languages* we named one group the *Italic* or *Latin*. From that parent language we have several descendants known as the *Romance languages*. One of the most important of these is French.

Soldiers and colonists from Rome spread their language throughout the Roman Empire. The great Roman general, Julius Caesar, led his army into Gaul, the ancient name of France, about sixty years before the birth of Christ. The conquest was not easy even for Caesar, and in order to hold the conquered country, he distributed land among his Roman soldiers who settled there in the midst of the Gauls.

The Roman soldiers in Gaul spoke a form of Latin very unlike the classical Latin used in Rome by the highly educated people. The Latin language, as we have seen, has many different endings to show changes in uses and meanings of words. To use all these endings correctly required study and understanding of the rules of the language. The plain soldiers, however, did not have the necessary understanding; so they used words and endings carelessly, dropped many, and even

SAMPLE LANGUAGES



One of Corot's famous landscapes.

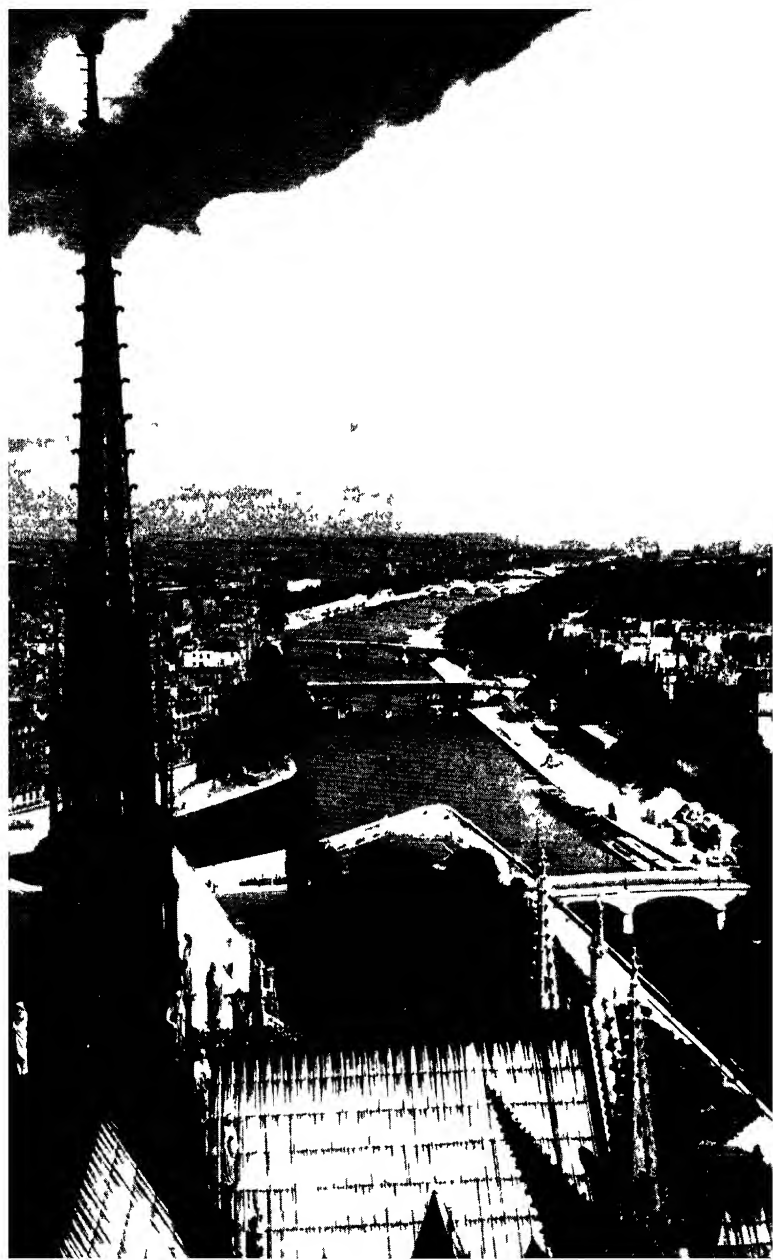
left out whole syllables that were not stressed. The Roman soldiers, of course, used these shortened forms of Latin in their communication with the native Gauls, who tried hard to learn the language of their conquerors. The result was a language from which modern French has developed. Below are some examples.

<i>Latin</i>	<i>Old French</i>	<i>Modern French</i>
hospitalem	hospital, hostel	hôtel
libertatem	liberté	liberté
regalitem	royaulté	royauté
realitem	réalté	réalité

In time, French became the language of cultured people in Europe. Let us now look at the map of France

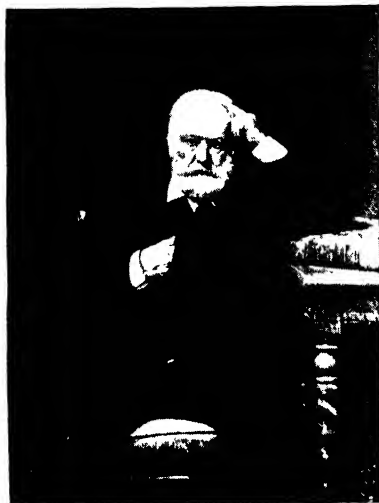
The picture on the opposite page by Burton Holmes from Ewing Galloway.

Paris and the Seine, from one of the towers of Notre Dame.



SAMPLE LANGUAGES

and note how important its geographical position is for the development of its civilization. France is so located that anyone going from England to Switzerland or Italy would almost have to cross France. And go-



There were many gifted writers in France in the nineteenth century, but Victor Hugo stands out above all of them. *Les Misérables* is often said to be the greatest novel of all countries.

ing from Spain to Germany, to Holland, or to England one would most likely pass through France. Now find Paris on the map and see how naturally it serves as the hub, or the center, of France. But it is not only for the French people that Paris is the center of culture and art. People go there from everywhere to see its magnificent buildings, its museums, its art galleries, its theaters, its shops, its parks, and its boulevards. People go to

Paris not merely to see it but to study art, architecture, music, science, literature. In fact, Paris is a center of culture and learning. Its history is full of the names of men and women who have accomplished great things, not only for the benefit of their own country, but for the world. Such names as Cuvier, Ampère, Lavoisier, Lumière, Pasteur, Braille, and Curie stand

FRENCH

in the front rank in science. In art are such famous names as: Houdon, Rodin, Millet, Corot, and Monet. In music we find: Gounod, Bizet, Massenet, Saint-Saëns, Ravel, and Debussy. Among literary names, to mention only a few, are such well-known ones as: Molière, Racine, Corneille, Voltaire, Rousseau, La Fontaine, Victor Hugo, Dumas, Balzac, Maupassant, Zola, Daudet, and Anatole France.

There are many words in French and English that are alike. Since the French language is made from Latin, and since there is over 50 per cent Latin in English, it is easy to see that there must be many words in French and English that are much alike. Moreover, we must not forget the French words that became part of the English language at the time of the Norman Conquest of England. There are, in fact, thousands of French words in English. We see below a proof of this statement, for you will have no difficulty in understanding the French story which follows.

La France est en Europe. Paris est la capitale de la France. Washington est la capitale des États-Unis. Les États-Unis sont en Amérique. La France est une république. La forme du gouvernement de la France ressemble au gouvernement des États-Unis. Le gouvernement de la France consiste d'un Président, d'un Sénat, et d'une Chambre des Députés. Le Président de la République Française habite le palais de l'Élysée à Paris, situé près de cette splendide avenue, les Champs-Élysées. Le Président des États-Unis habite la Maison-Blanche à Washington.

Words that look alike in French and English are pronounced very differently. We note that the big words, the most important ones, are much alike in French and

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

English. The spelling is often the same, but the pronunciation is very different. It takes practice to learn to pronounce French well. A good way is to imitate the pronunciation of a person who knows French and can show you how to make the French sounds and how they differ from English. Here are a few expressions for practice:

PRELIMINARY LESSON

Familiar Expressions ¹

Bonjour, Madame (Made-moiselle, Monsieur)	Good-day, Madam (Miss, Sir)
Comment allez-vous?	How are you?
Merci, je vais très bien, et vous?	Thanks, I am very well, and you?
Pas mal, merci.	Not bad, thanks.
Bonsoir.	Good evening.
Bonne nuit.	Good night.
Au revoir, <i>or</i> adieu.	Good-bye.
S'il vous plaît.	Please.
Il n'y a pas de quoi.	Don't mention it.
Il fait beau.	It is a fine day.
Il pleut.	It rains.
Il neige.	It snows.
Il fait froid.	It is cold.
Il fait chaud.	It is hot.
Regardez.	Look.
Écoutez.	Listen.
Traduisez.	Translate.
Lisez.	Read.
Écrivez.	Write.
Parlez-vous français, Madame?	Do you speak French, Madam?

¹ Your teacher will help you to pronounce the French expressions.

FRENCH

Oui, Mademoiselle, je parle français. Yes, Miss, I speak French.

Nous parlons anglais. We speak English.

Numerals

1. un	19. dix-neuf
2. deux	20. vingt
3. trois	21. vingt et un
4. quatre	22. vingt-deux
5. cinq	23. vingt-trois
6. six	24. vingt-quatre
7. sept	25. vingt-cinq
8. huit	26. vingt-six
9. neuf	27. vingt-sept
10. dix	28. vingt-huit
11. onze	29. vingt-neuf
12. douze	30. trente
13. treize	31. trente et un
14. quatorze	32. trente-deux
15. quinze	40. quarante
16. seize	41. quarante et un
17. dix-sept	50. cinquante
18. dix-huit	

The following lessons will help you to decide whether you care to learn more French. Try to understand A and B below without using the word list C. Do not be afraid to guess.

LESSON I

Vouloir c'est pouvoir. (*To wish is to be able, or Where there is a will, there is a way.*)

A. Lisez les phrases suivantes (*Read the following sentences*) :

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

1. Une lettre est dans l'enveloppe sur la table.
2. L'adresse est sur l'enveloppe.
3. Le timbre-poste est dans le coin de droite au haut de l'enveloppe.
4. La lettre est écrite sur le papier à lettre.

(The teacher will show the objects as she mentions them.)

- B. 1. Montrez-moi une table. Voici une table.
2. Montrez-moi une lettre. Voici une lettre dans une enveloppe sur la table.
3. Montrez-moi l'adresse. Voici l'adresse sur l'enveloppe.
4. Montrez-moi le timbre-poste. Voici le timbre-poste sur l'enveloppe.

C. Vocabulaire (*Word list*) :

une lettre, <i>a letter</i>	montrez-moi, <i>show me,</i>
la lettre, <i>the letter</i>	<i>point out</i>
une table, <i>a table</i>	au haut, <i>at the top</i>
la table, <i>the table</i>	voici, <i>here is (here are)</i>
une enveloppe, <i>an envelope</i>	voilà, <i>there is (there are)</i>
l'enveloppe, <i>the envelope</i>	est, <i>is</i>
une adresse, <i>an address</i>	où, <i>where</i>
l'adresse, <i>the address</i>	sur, <i>on</i>
un coin, <i>a corner</i>	dans, <i>in</i>
le coin, <i>the corner</i>	de, <i>of</i>
un timbre-poste, <i>a stamp</i>	qu'est-ce que? <i>what?</i>
le timbre-poste, <i>the stamp</i>	droit, <i>right</i>
au bas, <i>at the bottom</i>	gauche, <i>left</i>

- D. Répondez en français aux questions suivantes (*Answer the following questions in French*) :

F R E N C H

Use the words you know to answer these questions.

1. Où est la lettre?
2. Où est l'enveloppe?
3. Où est l'adresse?
4. Où est le timbre-poste?
5. Qu'est-ce qui est sur la table?
6. Qu'est-ce qui est dans l'enveloppe?
7. Qu'est-ce qui est sur l'enveloppe?
8. Qu'est-ce qui est dans le coin de droite au haut de l'enveloppe?

E. Grammaire: Les articles (*grammar, the articles*)

Singulier masculin	{	un le l'		Singulier féminin	{	une la l'
Pluriel				{ des		
masculin et féminin				{ les		

Un, une, des sont les articles indéfinis (*indefinite*) .

Le, la, l', les sont les articles définis (*definite*) .

Exercise

1. Make a list of all the French words you have had so far which are like English words in their meaning. Notice that not all French words and English words that look alike may have the same meaning; for example, *coin* means *corner* and not *coin*; *timbre* means *stamp* and not *timber*; *sur* means *on* and not *sure*. We must not assume that all words that look alike are necessarily related or derived from the same source. But it is safe to assume that most words that look alike come from the same root, and often the English word is merely a French word which was adopted at the period when the Normans came into England or since that time.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

2. Notice how the following words are divided into syllables:

let | tre

ta | ble

a | dres | se

en | ve | lop | pe

ar | ti | cles

ques | tion

plu | riel

sui | van | tes

Copy the following words and divide them into syllables by inserting lines as above:

répondez

montrez

singulier

masculin

féminin

voici

lisez

timbre-poste

définis

leçon

LESSON II

À bon entendeur, salut (*To a good listener, greetings, or A word to the wise is sufficient*).

Make use of the words you already know and look at the word list if necessary. Don't be afraid to guess.

A. Lisez le suivant:

1. La lettre est adressée à

Mademoiselle L. Lenoir

2950, avenue Lothrop

Détroit, Michigan

États-Unis, Amérique

2. L'adresse est la place où la personne demeure.

3. Je demeure avenue Lothrop; je ne demeure pas sur le grand boulevard.

4. Je demeure à Détroit; je ne demeure pas à Paris.

5. Vous demeurez à Détroit; vous ne demeurez pas à Londres.

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6. Vous demeurez aux États-Unis; vous ne demeurez pas en Europe.

B. Vocabulaire (*Word list*) :

adressé(e) à, <i>addressed to</i>	aux États-Unis, <i>in or to the United States</i>
Mademoiselle, <i>Miss</i>	
Madame, <i>Mrs., Madam</i>	ne . . . pas, <i>not</i>
Monsieur, <i>Mr., Sir</i>	à Détroit, <i>in, at, or to Detroit</i>
une avenue, <i>an avenue</i>	
les États-Unis, <i>the United States</i>	en Europe, <i>in, to Europe</i>
la cité, <i>the city</i>	la ville, <i>the city</i>
l'état, <i>the state</i>	à qui, <i>to whom</i>
l'Amérique, <i>America</i>	sur, <i>on</i>
la place, <i>the place</i>	quel (quelle), <i>what or which</i>
la personne, <i>the person</i>	situé, <i>situated</i>
demeure, <i>lives</i>	est-ce que, <i>is it that?</i>
je demeure, <i>I live</i>	mon adresse, <i>my address</i>
vous demeurez, <i>you live</i>	votre adresse, <i>your address</i>
oui, <i>yes</i>	ajoutez, <i>add</i>
non, <i>no</i>	pour, <i>in order to, for</i>

C. Répondez aux questions suivantes:

1. À qui est-ce que la lettre est adressée?
2. À quelle avenue est-ce que la lettre est adressée?
3. À quelle ville est-ce que la lettre est adressée?
4. Est-ce que Détroit est situé dans l'état de Michigan?
5. Où est le Michigan?
6. Où demeure Mademoiselle Lenoir?
7. Où demeurez-vous?
8. Est-ce que vous demeurez aux États-Unis?
9. Est-ce que les États-Unis sont en Amérique?
10. Quelle est votre adresse?

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

D. Grammaire: Le pluriel des noms et des adjectifs
(*The plural of nouns and adjectives*).

Pour former le pluriel d'un nom ou d'un adjectif, ajoutez *s* au singulier.

Exemple:

le coin — les coins

la table — les tables

l'adresse — les adresses

le grand boulevard — les grands boulevards

Exercise

1. Give English words which you think are like the following and mean the same:

état

ville

personne

douze

situé

sept

adresse

former

2. Using preceding pages for reference, supply the word or words necessary to make a complete thought:

a. Paris n'est pas

b. Londres est

c. Détroit n'est pas

d. Monsieur X n'est pas

e. Madame X demeure

LESSON III

Mieux vaut tard que jamais
(*Better late than never*).

Many words are used again and again. Watch for them. Examples: *de, en, le, la, est, un*. They are not repeated in the word lists.

FRENCH

A. Lisez les phrases suivantes:

1. La lettre est arrivée de la France.

2. La France est en Europe. La France n'est pas en Amérique du nord.

3. La lettre a fait un long voyage.

4. Elle a traversé l'océan Atlantique.

5. J'ai fait un long voyage.

6. J'ai traversé l'océan Atlantique.

7. Avez-vous fait un long voyage?

8. Avez-vous traversé l'océan Atlantique?



From a painting of Jeanne d'Arc which hangs in the Louvre Museum. The young peasant girl achieved her purpose, and stood nearby when the Dauphin was crowned the ruler of France.

B. Vocabulaire:

a traversé, *has crossed (traversed)*

l'océan, *the ocean*

a fait, *has made, made*

le voyage, *the journey (voyage)*

long, *long; court, short*

le pays, *the country*

qui, *who*

qu'est-ce que? *what?*

C. Répondez aux questions suivantes:

1. De quel pays est-ce que la lettre est arrivée?

2. Qu'est-ce qui a fait un long voyage?

3. Quel océan est-ce que la lettre a traversé?

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

4. Qui a fait un long voyage?
5. Avez-vous fait un court voyage?
6. Ai-je fait un long voyage?
7. N'ai-je pas traversé l'océan Atlantique?
8. N'avez-vous pas traversé l'océan Atlantique?

D. Grammaire:

Le présent de l'indicatif du verbe *avoir* — *to have* — à la forme affirmative.

j'ai, <i>I have</i>	nous avons, <i>we have</i>
tu as, <i>thou hast</i>	vous avez, <i>you have</i>
il a, <i>he has</i> (mas.)	ils ont, <i>they have</i> (mas.)
elle a, <i>she has</i> (fém.)	elles ont, <i>they have</i> (fém.)

Le présent de l'indicatif du verbe *avoir* à la forme négative.

je n'ai pas, <i>I have not</i>	nous n'avons pas, <i>we have not</i>
tu n'as pas, <i>thou hast not</i>	vous n'avez pas, <i>you have not</i>
il n'a pas, <i>he has not</i>	ils n'ont pas, <i>they have not</i>
elle n'a pas, <i>she has not</i>	elles n'ont pas, <i>they have not</i>

Le verbe *avoir* à la forme interrogative.

ai-je? <i>have I?</i>	avons-nous? <i>have we?</i>
as-tu? <i>hast thou?</i>	avez-vous? <i>have you?</i>
a-t-il? <i>has he?</i>	ont-ils? <i>have they?</i>
a-t-elle? <i>has she?</i>	ont-elles? <i>have they?</i>

Exercise

Donnez la forme négative (*Give the negative form*) :

1. Il a une lettre.
2. Avez-vous une enveloppe?

FRENCH

3. La lettre a une adresse.
4. Ont-ils des lettres?
5. Nous avons des adresses.
6. L'enveloppe a-t-elle une adresse?
7. Avez-vous une adresse?
8. Elles ont du papier à lettre.
9. Ai-je une lettre?
10. A-t-il une enveloppe?

LESSON IV

Rira bien qui rira le dernier
(*He laughs best who laughs last*).

A. Lisez les phrases suivantes:

1. La date est sur l'enveloppe.
2. La date est aussi dans la lettre.
3. Au commencement de la lettre il y a le nom de la ville où la lettre est écrite.
4. Sous le nom de la ville se trouve la date où la lettre est écrite.
5. Une lettre commence par une salutation.
6. Voici la salutation de cette lettre:
"Chère Mademoiselle."
7. À un monsieur la salutation est:
"Cher Monsieur."
8. À une femme mariée la salutation est:
"Chère Madame."

B. Vocabulaire:

la date, *the date*

aussi, *also*

cher (mâs.), *dear*

chère (fém.), *dear*

au commencement, *at the beginning*

commence, *begins*

le nom, *the name, the noun*

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

sous, <i>under</i>	lundi, <i>Monday</i>	
par, <i>by</i>	mardi, <i>Tuesday</i>	
il y a, <i>there is, there are</i>	mercredi, <i>Wednesday</i>	
y a-t-il? <i>is there, are there?</i>	jeudi, <i>Thursday</i>	
se trouve, <i>there is</i>	vendredi, <i>Friday</i>	
se trouvent, <i>there are</i>	samedi, <i>Saturday</i>	
la date où, <i>the date when</i>	dimanche, <i>Sunday</i>	
salutation, <i>greeting</i>	les quatre saisons, <i>the four seasons</i>	
ce (mas.)	} <i>this, that</i>	le printemps, au printemps,
cet (mas.)		<i>in spring</i>
cette (fém.)		l'été, en été, <i>in summer</i>
ces, <i>these, those</i>		l'automne, en automne, <i>in autumn</i>
une femme, <i>a woman</i>		l'hiver, en hiver, <i>in winter</i>
marié (e) , <i>married</i>		le premier, <i>the first</i> (mas.)
aujourd'hui, <i>today</i>		la première, <i>the first</i> (fém.)
la semaine, <i>the week</i>		le dernier, <i>the last</i> (mas.)
le mois, <i>the month</i>		la dernière, <i>the last</i> (fém.)
sommes-nous? <i>are we?</i>		
les jours de la semaine, <i>the days of the week</i>		

Les douze mois de l'année (*The twelve months of the year*) :

janvier, <i>January</i>	juillet, <i>July</i>
février, <i>February</i>	août, <i>August</i>
mars, <i>March</i>	septembre, <i>September</i>
avril, <i>April</i>	octobre, <i>October</i>
mai, <i>May</i>	novembre, <i>November</i>
juin, <i>June</i>	décembre, <i>December</i>

C. Répondez aux questions suivantes:

1. Quel est la date sur l'enveloppe?
2. Quel est la date aujourd'hui?
3. Quel jour de la semaine est-ce aujourd'hui?
4. Quel jour du mois sommes-nous aujourd'hui?

FRENCH

5. Quels sont les sept jours de la semaine?
6. Quels sont les douze mois de l'année?
7. Quelles sont les quatre saisons?

D. Grammaire:

Le présent de l'indicatif du verbe *être* — *to be*.

je suis, <i>I am</i>	nous sommes, <i>we are</i>
tu es, <i>thou art</i>	vous êtes, <i>you are</i>
il est, <i>he is</i>	ils sont, <i>they are</i>
elle est, <i>she is</i>	elles sont, <i>they are</i>

Exercise

1. 1. Le premier jour de la semaine est ____
2. Le deuxième jour de la semaine est ____
3. Mercredi est le troisième jour de ____
4. Octobre est le dixième mois de ____
5. L'automne est une ____
6. C'est aujourd'hui ____
7. Le dernier mois de l'année est ____
8. La semaine a jours.
9. Le premier mois de l'hiver est ____
10. Un mois a semaines.

2. Make a list of all the French words in the lesson which resemble English words or which are from the same source and have the same meaning, such as *janvier, January*.

LESSON V

Tout est bien qui finit bien (*All is well that ends well*).

A. Lisez les phrases suivantes:

1. Il est maintenant onze heures du matin.
2. Regardez le cadran de l'horloge ou de votre montre. Quelle heure est-il?

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

3. Il est onze heures dix minutes, ou, il est onze heures un quart, ou, onze heures et demie, ou, il est midi moins vingt, ou, midi moins quart.

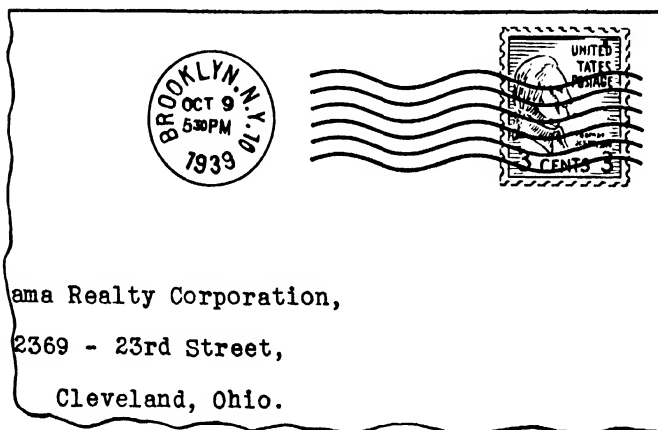
4. L'horloge a deux aiguilles; la petite aiguille indique les heures et la grande aiguille indique les minutes.

5. Un jour a vingt-quatre heures.

6. Une heure a soixante minutes.

7. Une minute a soixante secondes.

8. Le contraire de midi est minuit.



9. Sur l'enveloppe on indique l'heure où la lettre est mise à la poste (*mailed*).

10. Regardez l'enveloppe et voyez.

B. Vocabulaire:

on, *one*, you, *we*, *they*,
people

indique, *show*, *indicate*
l'heure, *the hour*

mis(e), *put*

la poste, *post office*

regardez, *look at* (imperative)

FRENCH

voyez, <i>see</i> (imperative)	il est onze heures, <i>it is eleven o'clock</i>
maintenant, <i>now</i>	
le matin, <i>morning</i>	un quart, <i>a quarter</i>
du matin, A.M. (forenoon)	demi (e), <i>half</i>
du soir, P.M. (evening)	moins, <i>less</i>
l'après-midi, <i>afternoon</i>	midi, <i>midday, noon</i>
le cadran, <i>the face of a clock</i>	minuit, <i>midnight</i>
or <i>watch</i>	l'aiguille, <i>the hand of a clock</i>
l'horloge, <i>the clock</i>	
la montre, <i>the watch</i>	au-dessous, <i>below</i>
quelle heure est-il? <i>what time is it?</i>	le contraire, <i>the opposite</i>
	le facteur, <i>the postman</i>

C. Répondez aux questions suivantes:

1. Quelle heure est-il?
2. Quelle heure est indiquée sur l'enveloppe?
3. Regardez les cadrans au-dessous. Quelle heure est-il?



4. Avez-vous une montre?
5. Quelle aiguille indique les heures?
6. Quelle aiguille indique les minutes?
7. Le facteur arrive-t-il le matin avec les lettres?
8. Est-ce que le facteur arrive aussi l'après-midi?

D. Grammaire: L'accord de l'adjectif.

Un adjectif s'accorde en nombre et en genre avec le nom qu'il modifie.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

Exemple:

un long voyage — des longs voyages
une longue lettre — des longues lettres
le grand cadran — les grands cadrans
la petite aiguille — les petites aiguilles

Exercise

1. Trouvez la forme convenable de l'adjectif.

1. Une (court) heure.
2. Une (grand) place.
3. Le (premier) jour.
4. Les (dernier) mois.
5. Les (premier) lettres.
6. La (petit) table.
7. La (premier) adresse.
8. Les (long) lettres.

2. Make a list of English words which you think are related to the following French ones:

poste	heure
indique	contraire
midi	matin
quart	répondez

LESSON VI

A. Lisez la lettre suivante:

Paris, le 12 mai, 1938

Chère Mademoiselle,

Me voici à Paris, la capitale de France et la plus belle ville du monde! Je vous invite à me rendre visite cet été à Paris. Je vous promets de vous faire voir les beautés de Paris: les grands monuments, les édifices publics, les parcs, les églises, les palais, les galeries de pein-

F R E N C H

tures et de sculptures, les théâtres, les musées, les grands boulevards, les cafés, les magasins, etc. Je vous promets toutes sortes d'amusements, de la musique, des pièces de théâtre, des sports, des promenades en automobile.

Répondez-moi bientôt. Acceptez, je vous prie, l'assurance de mes sentiments les plus affectueux.

Bien à vous,

Jeanne Dufour

B. Vocabulaire:

me voici, <i>here I am</i>	une église, <i>a church</i>
je vous invite, <i>I invite you</i>	un magasin, <i>a store</i>
rendre visite, <i>pay a visit</i>	bientôt, <i>soon</i>
je promets, <i>I promise</i>	je vous prie, <i>I beg you,</i>
faire voir, <i>to show</i>	<i>please</i>
du monde, <i>in the world</i>	bien à vous, <i>sincerely yours</i>
la plus belle, <i>the most beau-</i>	aimez-vous, <i>do you like?</i>
<i>tiful</i>	j'aime, <i>I like</i>
une édifice, <i>a building</i>	je réponds, <i>I answer</i>

C. Répondez aux questions suivantes:

1. Où la lettre a-t-elle été écrite?
2. À qui est la lettre adressée?
3. Quand la lettre a-t-elle été écrite?
4. Où se trouve la personne qui a écrit la lettre?
5. Où est Paris?
6. Avez-vous été à Paris?
7. Est-ce que Paris est la plus grande ville du monde?
8. Quelle ville est la plus grande ville du monde?
9. Quelle ville est la plus grande ville des États-Unis?
10. Avez-vous été à New York?

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

11. Avez-vous vu les grands monuments de New York?

12. Avez-vous vu les "gratte-ciels" de New York?

13. Y a-t-il des théâtres et des cinémas dans votre ville?

14. Y a-t-il dans votre ville des édifices publics? Nommez-en.

15. Aimez-vous faire des promenades en automobile?

16. Aimez-vous des sports?

17. Répondez-vous bientôt à une lettre?

18. Aimez-vous visiter les magasins?

19. Aimez-vous visiter les musées?

20. Quelle expression de politesse se trouve à la fin de la lettre?

Exercise

1. Make a list in a notebook of all the French words you have had so far that resemble English words and have the same meaning.

2. How many French words do you really know at the present moment? List them in a notebook.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How did Gaul come to get the name France?

2. Was the contact with Rome of value to France's development?

3. How many "départements," corresponding to our states, are there in France?

4. Can you find the names for the old French provinces?

5. What can you tell about the province of Normandy and the Normans?

6. Can you tell something about the 14th of July, the French 4th of July?

FRENCH

7. Can you name some of the most important cities in France?
8. Tell something about Versailles.
9. Ask a person who speaks and reads French what value such ability can have.
10. What do you know about Braille?
11. Can you tell something about Pasteur?
12. Have you ever heard of Lafayette? If so, tell something about him.
13. What do you know about Père Marquette, La Salle, Cadillac?
14. Can you explain why French is called "the language of diplomacy"?
15. Why is French so different from Latin?
16. How did English get so many French words mixed into its vocabulary?
17. How does it happen that we can understand so many French words when we see them, but we find it so hard to understand a Frenchman speaking French?
18. Are there in French any sounds that are not found in English?
19. How do you pronounce *encore*? Why?
20. Do you know the story of *Les Misérables* by Victor Hugo? If so, tell something about it.

ACTIVITIES

1. Look up and tell something about the province of Bretagne (Brittany).
2. Look up some facts about the famous châteaux (castles) in Touraine.
3. Interview a Latin student who has read Caesar's *Gallic Wars* and find out what he says about the conquest of Gaul.
4. Learn to sing *La Marseillaise*.
5. Ask a student who is studying French to show you

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

his French book and see if you find many words that you recognize because of their resemblance to English.

6. Look in books and magazines for pictures of the best known public buildings and monuments in Paris and list them.

7. If you are interested, look up something about some of the persons mentioned in this chapter.

8. Make a list of articles with French names advertised in newspapers and magazines.

9. Make a list of French expressions which you find from time to time in your reading.

10. How does it happen that cities like New Orleans and Montreal have so many French street names?

11. Look up and list French geographical names in the United States.

12. Make a list of French words selected from menus.

13. List some military terms taken from French.

14. List some government terms of French origin.

15. How does it happen that both English and French are spoken in Montreal and Quebec?

16. List some French proverbs.

17. Tell something about the famous French dress-makers.

18. Look up about the French Academy.

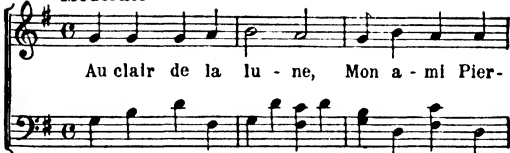
19. Look up about the Legion of Honor.

20. Learn some commonly used French expressions, such as: *s'il vous plaît, après moi le déluge, laissez faire, savoir faire, comme il faut, bon voyage*, etc.

AU CLAIR DE LA LUNE

Moderato

CHANT

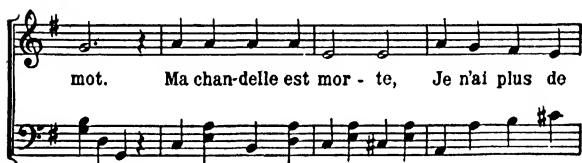


Au clair de la lu - ne, Mon a - mi Pier-

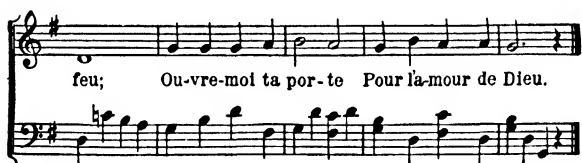
PIANO



rot, Prê - te-moi ta plu - me Pour é - crire un



mot. Ma chan-delle est mor - te, Je n'ai plus de



feu; Ou-vre-moi ta por-te Pour l'a-mour de Dieu.

Au clair de la lune,
Pierrot répondit:
Je n'ai pas de plume,
Je suis dans mon lit.

Va chez la voisine,
Je crois qu'elle y est,
Car dans sa cuisine,
On bat le briquet.



The Spanish Armada sailed against England 1588

Tours
Here the Moors were
driven by Charles Martel
in 152

The Vandals came
from the North

The Visigoths came
from the Lower Danube

PORTUGAL
Finally separated
from Spain 1640

Columbus sailed from here
in 1492

The Moors came
from Northern Africa

Scale of Miles

0 50 100 150 250



SPAIN

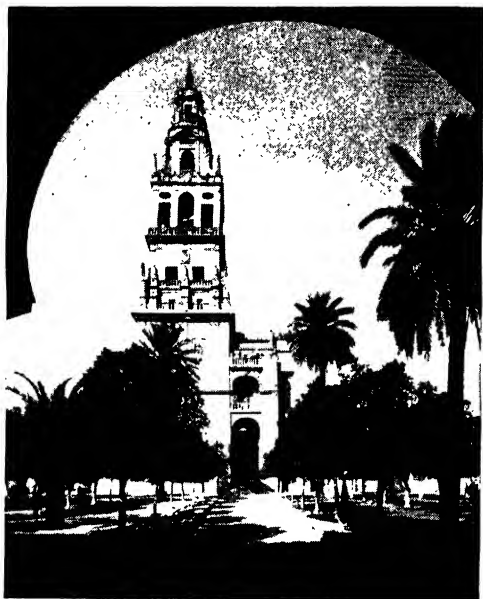
The Spanish Language

The Spanish language has spread into all parts of the world. The romantic language of old Spain has spread almost as widely as the many forms of its mother tongue, Latin. Nine countries in South America are the homes of Spanish-speaking people: Argentina, Chile, Peru, Colombia, Venezuela, Bolivia, Ecuador, Paraguay, and Uruguay.

In Brazil, the largest of the South American countries, Portuguese is the official language, and this is very closely related to Spanish.

In Central America there are six countries in which Spanish is spoken: Panama, Honduras, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Salvador, and Costa Rica. Further to the north we have Mexico, and in the West Indies there are Cuba, Santo Domingo, and Puerto Rico, a possession of the United States. In the southern parts of California, Texas, Arizona, and New Mexico, Spanish is frequently heard, as this part of our country was once part of the Spanish Empire and later part of Mexico. In the Philippine Islands, which we got from Spain in 1898, Spanish is spoken in the more civilized regions. Then, of course, there are Spain and Portugal, which are the mother countries of all these other countries. There are no pages in history more colorful than those

SAMPLE LANGUAGES



Gendreau

About eight hundred years before Columbus discovered America, the Moors from the great Arabian desert drove the barbarian Goths out of Spain and settled down to rule the country and to convert the Spaniards to the faith of Mohammed. They brought a rich civilization to the country. The capital of the Moorish state was at Cordova. This is a picture of the Cathedral in Cordova as it looks today. It was originally a Mohammedan mosque, built by the Moors.

which unfold for us the coming of the Spaniards and the Portuguese to the New World, and the spread of their cultures and languages.

Remember that the Romance languages are Roman in origin and come directly from the Latin. From where did the Spanish and Portuguese come? Long before the Christian Era, the Romans spread their rule to the

SPANISH

Iberian Peninsula, which is today Spain and Portugal. It must be remembered that on the trail of the Roman legions there followed the culture of the Romans. They built roads that are used to this day; they erected bridges, temples, theaters, baths; they built cities and towns; and they gave the people a system of laws, a written and a spoken language. In Spain and Portugal, as well as in France and even in faraway Rumania, the Romans remained long enough so that Latin became the speech of the people. Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Rumanian are today what we may call modern Latin.

Each of the peoples conquered by Rome adopted Latin in its own way. Although Latin became the Spanish, Italian, French, Portuguese, and Rumanian of today, it must not be supposed that the nations began by using the Latin speech of Caesar and Cicero or that of the educated Romans. At first the conquered people clung to their own language and Latin was spoken only by the Romans who settled among them. Gradually, however, the people took on this speech and began using what they thought they heard. However, what they heard and what they said was far from being pure Latin. For instance, they did not use the different case endings as carefully as the educated Romans used them. There was no widespread use of books, and there were no printing presses. Hence we cannot expect to find that a man in the southern tip of Spain, for instance, should know just how a certain thing was said in the schools of Rome.

The inhabitants of the different parts of the Roman

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

world made their own characteristic changes. After the fall of Rome and the splitting of that great empire into independent countries, the changes became even more permanent.

A simple comparison will help us see how certain Latin words became slightly changed in some of the Romance languages. If we make a few comparisons, it will be easy to see the similarity in these languages. Here are five words in eight languages that will repay study. The eighth one, Esperanto, is really an artificial language. This means that it has not grown normally like the rest, but that it was made by its inventor. This language is what many people believe we should use universally. This does not mean that we should do away with our native tongue, but that each of us should learn Esperanto in addition to our own language, so as to be able to communicate with the whole world. Latin makes up a very large part of it.

LATIN	ITALIAN	SPANISH	PORTUGUESE
familia	famiglia	familia	familia
miser	miserabile	miserable	miseravel
lacuna	laguna	laguna	laguna
portus	porto	puerto	porto
limonata	limonata	limonada	limonada
FRENCH	RUMANIAN	ENGLISH	ESPERANTO
famille	familie	family	familie
misérable	miser	miserable	mizera
lagune	laguna	lagoon	laguno
port	port	port	portalo
limonade	limonada	lemonade	limonado

SPANISH

Here are four good reasons for knowing something about Spanish. When we speak of the importance of Spanish there are several things we ought to consider.

First, is Spanish of any importance as a help in better understanding English? Because of the Norman Conquest of England in 1066, English came to be made up very largely of Latin coming through Norman French.

If the invasion of England had come from either Italy or Spain in 1066 instead of from Normandy, the result would have been somewhat different and yet basically the same, for instead of the Latin form, Italian or Spanish would have been developed.

Therefore, while English borrowed from the French and not from the Spanish, French is a tremendous help in our study of English; but Spanish, from which English did not borrow, is sufficiently similar so that a knowledge of Spanish enables us to trace many words to their Latin origin.

The following lessons in Spanish will illustrate this fact, for in them we can read with great ease the history of Spain and Spanish America, without the help of many explanations as to the meaning of the words.

Second, Spanish is of importance as a commercial language, since that language is spoken by so many countries with which there is an ever-increasing amount of trade.

Third, as a language of international importance, Spanish holds a very high place. Our constantly increasing relations, political and social as well as commercial, demand that we in the United States have a good knowledge of the language of our many neighbors

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

to the south of us. Every traveler who has been to Spanish America, officially or unofficially, has expressed the opinion that Spanish should be studied in our schools.

And last, we must remember that Spanish has a cultural value, for Spanish literature contains some of the world's most famous books. In order to get the real spirit and feeling of what we are reading, we must read it in the language in which it was originally written. There is much lost in the process of translation. The story by the great Cervantes of that famous knight, "Don Quijote," who allowed his imagination to run away with him and attacked windmills because he thought they were giants, can be fully appreciated only by reading it in the Spanish. Other writers whom we should know are: Calderón, Galdós, Alarcón, Valdés, Ibáñez. Great artists who are world famous are: Velásquez, Murillo, El Greco, Goya, Zuloaga, and Sorolla.

PRELIMINARY LESSON

Familiar Expressions

Buenos días, señor.	Good day, sir.
Buenas tardes, señorita.	Good afternoon, Miss.
Buenas noches, señora.	Good night, Madam.
¿Cómo está usted? ¹	How are you?
Muy bien, gracias.	Very well, thanks.
Hasta mañana.	See you tomorrow.
Hasta la vista.	Till we meet again.
Adiós.	Good-bye.

¹ Notice that in Spanish a question always starts with an inverted question mark. This is helpful because you know at once that you have a question to answer.

SPANISH

Hace buen tiempo.	It is good weather.
Hace muy mal tiempo.	It is bad weather.
Dispénseme usted.	Excuse me.
Muchas gracias.	Many thanks.
Haga usted el favor.	Please.
¡Entre usted!	Come in.
Con mucho gusto.	With pleasure.
Lo siento mucho.	I am sorry.
El año, <i>the year</i>	Los días de la semana son,
Enero, <i>January</i>	<i>The days of the week are:</i>
Febrero, <i>February</i>	
Marzo, <i>March</i>	domingo, <i>Sunday</i>
Abril, <i>April</i>	lunes, <i>Monday</i>
Mayo, <i>May</i>	martes, <i>Tuesday</i>
Junio, <i>June</i>	miércoles, <i>Wednesday</i>
Julio, <i>July</i>	jueves, <i>Thursday</i>
Agosto, <i>August</i>	viernes, <i>Friday</i>
Septiembre, <i>September</i>	sábado, <i>Saturday</i>
Octubre, <i>October</i>	
Noviembre, <i>November</i>	
Diciembre, <i>December</i>	

Numerals

¿Sabe usted los números españoles?

uno	seis	once	dieciseis
dos	siete	doce	diecisiete
tres	ocho	trece	dieciocho
cuatro	nueve	catorce	diecinueve
cinco	diez	quince	veinte

LESSON I

Here is a lesson in geography written in Spanish. Read it and see how easily you can understand it since the words are so much like English words.



Gendreau

La capital del Brasil es Río de Janeiro.

GEOGRAFÍA DE HISPANO-AMÉRICA

Méjico es una república. El Panamá es una república de Centro-América. La Argentina es una república de Sud-América.

La Argentina es una nación importante. El Brasil es una nación importante de Sud-América. Chile es una nación importante de Sud-América.

La capital de Méjico es Méjico. La capital del Panamá es Panamá y la de la Argentina es Buenos Aires. La capital del Brasil es Río de Janeiro y la de Chile es Santiago.

Exercise

How long did it take you to understand the meaning of this geography lesson?

SPANISH

Is this your first attempt at reading Spanish?

What helped you to understand it?

Can you pronounce the words and read these sentences in Spanish?

Can there be much difference in the sound of these words in English and in Spanish?

How could you learn to read them in Spanish?

LESSON II

Here we have a history lesson. There may be a word here and there that seems very different from the English. Get the meaning of these words by the help of the words that come before and after them. It is often possible to guess the correct meaning of these words by the meaning of other words that surround them. Get ideas from groups of words rather than from the single word.

HISTORIA DE HISPANO-AMÉRICA

(Exploración)

Cristóbal Colón descubrió América en 1492. Los exploradores españoles son (are) Ponce de León en la Florida; Cortés en Méjico; Pizarro en el Perú; Almagro en Chile; Juan de Solís en la Argentina; y Cabral en el Brasil.

Cortés conquistó a Méjico en 1519-1521. Los habitantes de Méjico eran (were) indios — indios Aztecas. En las minas (mines) en las montañas había minerales importantes, — oro (gold) y plata (silver). Méjico era un territorio rico. El emperador de los Aztecas era el famoso Montezuma. Los españoles desearon

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

(wished) conquistar a Méjico, obtener los minerales importantes, y convertir los indios a la religión católica.

Pizarro en Sud-América conquistó al Perú; capturó los minerales oro y plata; y convirtió los indios a la religión católica.

LESSON III

In this lesson continue to guess at a correct meaning of certain words by those that come before and after them. However, at the end of the reading lesson there is a "vocabulario" for those words that may be a little difficult.

HISTORIA DE SUD-AMÉRICA (Colonización y Revolución)

En Europa Napoleón entró en España en 1808 y ocupó a Madrid, capital de España. Las colonias españolas en América formaron *gobiernos* durante la ocupación de España por Napoleón y los franceses. *Cuando* Napoleón se retiró de España, *el rey* de España, Fernando VII, deseó la reunión de las colonias en América, *pero* los centroamericanos y los sud-americanos se declararon independientes. Las tropas españolas entraron, y comenzó un combate *entre* los soldados españoles y los revolucionarios.

En la Argentina y en Chile San Martín *fué* el general de los revolucionarios. En Colombia, Venezuela, el Perú, y en Bolivia, el general *fué* Simón Bolívar, el héroe y el « George Washington » de Sud-América.

En Méjico, en 1810 y en 1811 Hidalgo y Morelos, los héroes de la revolución en Méjico, comenzaron el

SPANISH

combate con los españoles y finalmente en 1821 Méjico procuró la independendencia.

Vocabulario (*Word List*)

gobiernos, <i>governments</i>	pero, <i>but</i>
cuando, <i>when</i>	entre, <i>between</i>
el rey, <i>the king</i>	fué, <i>was</i>

LESSON IV

In this lesson we have a series of questions in Spanish. Do you understand what is asked? Could you give the answers? Notice how this is done.

1. ¿*Qué* es Méjico? Méjico es una república.
2. ¿*Cuál* es la capital de la Argentina? La capital de la Argentina es Buenos Aires.
3. ¿*Dónde está* Chile? Chile está en Sud-América.
4. ¿Quién fué el explorador del Brasil? El explorador del Brasil fué Cabral.
5. ¿*Qué había* en las montañas de Méjico? Había en las montañas de Méjico oro y plata.

¿qué? <i>what?</i>	¿cómo se llamaba? { <i>How was he called?</i> <i>How was he named?</i>
¿cuál? <i>which?</i>	
¿dónde está?	
<i>where is?</i>	guerra, <i>war</i>
¿había? <i>was there,</i> <i>there was</i>	

Exercise

Write the answers to the following questions, using the material of the first three lessons for a reference.

1. ¿Dónde está la Argentina?
2. ¿Cuál es la capital de la Argentina?

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

3. ¿Cuándo descubrió América Cristóbal Colón?
4. ¿Quién fué el explorador de la Florida?
5. ¿Qué desearon obtener los españoles en Méjico y en el Perú?
6. ¿Quién entró en Madrid en 1808?
7. ¿Cuándo formaron gobiernos independientes las colonias?
8. ¿Entre quién comenzó el combate en Centro- y Sud-América?
9. ¿Cómo se llamaba el general de los revolucionarios en la Argentina?
10. ¿Quién fué general de los revolucionarios en Venezuela?
11. ¿Quién es el «George Washington» de Sud-América?
12. ¿Cuándo comenzó la revolución en Méjico?
13. ¿Cuándo terminó la guerra de la independendencia en Méjico?
14. ¿Quién fué uno de los héroes de la revolución en Méjico?
15. ¿Dónde está el Brasil?

LESSON V

BOLÍVAR Y SAN MARTÍN

Los *dos* héroes de la independendencia de las repúblicas de Sud-América son Simón Bolívar en Venezuela, Colombia, el Ecuador, Bolivia y el Perú, y San Martín en la Argentina y Chile.

San Martín *luchó* en la Argentina, cruzó los Andes, entró en Chile y *derrotó* a los españoles y fué en dirección norte en el Perú. En el Perú *encontró* a Bolívar.

Simón Bolívar *nació* en Venezuela en 1783. Recibió su educación en España. Los habitantes de Venezuela

SPANISH

se rebelaron y en 1812 *nombraron* a Bolívar *como* general. *En unos pocos años* Bolívar *aseguró* la independencia del norte de Sud-América — de Venezuela, del Ecuador, del Perú, de Bolivia y de Colombia.

Vocabulario (*Word List*)

dos, <i>two</i>	nombraron, <i>named</i>
luchó, <i>fought</i>	como, <i>as</i>
derrotó, <i>routed</i>	en unos pocos años, <i>in a few years</i>
encontró, <i>met, encountered</i>	aseguró, <i>assured</i>
nació, <i>was born</i>	ganaron, <i>gained</i>

Exercise

On a separate sheet of paper write the sentences, filling in the blanks with the proper Spanish word as is done in the examples. Consult the reading lessons that you have had for subject matter. *Do not write in your book.*

EXAMPLES:

Río de Janeiro es la *capital* del Brasil.

La Argentina está en *Sud-América*.

1. Los héroes de la revolución en Sud-América son y

2. . . . descubrió América en 1492.

3. . . . conquistó a Méjico.

4. En las minas de Méjico había y

5. El emperador de los Aztecas fué

6. Las tropas de ocuparon a Madrid.

7. Las colonias formaron independientes en Hispano-América.

8. Cuando Napoleón se retiró de Madrid, el de España, Fernando VII, deseó la reunión de las colonias en América.

9. Las españolas desbarcaron y comenzaron a combatir.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

10. Finalmente los revolucionarios ganaron su
11. El « George Washington » de Sud-América es
12. Recibió su educación en

Hispano-América

SUD-AMÉRICA

<i>Republicas</i>	<i>Capitales</i>
Brasil	Rio de Janeiro
Chile	Santiago
Colombia	Bogotá
Venezuela	Caracas
Perú	Lima
Ecuador	Quito
Paraguay	Asunción
Uruguay	Montevideo
Bolivia	La Paz

CENTRO-AMÉRICA

Panamá	Panamá
Nicaragua	Managua
Guatemala	Guatemala
Honduras	Tegucigalpa
Salvador	San Salvador
Costa Rica	San José
Méjico	Méjico
Cuba	Habana
Santo Domingo	Santo Domingo
España	Madrid
Portugal	Lisboa

SPANISH

As can be seen above, Spanish is the language of nineteen independent countries, and Portuguese — which is very similar — of two: Portugal and Brazil.

Exercise

Make a list of English and Spanish words in parallel columns and note particularly the differences in spelling.

How many Spanish words do you know?

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why are Spanish and French not more alike since both are derived from Latin?
2. What important differences are there in the pronunciation of Spanish as spoken in Spain, Mexico, and Chile?
3. About how many people use Spanish as their native language?
4. Why is a knowledge of Spanish of value in the United States?
5. What do the terms *San* and *Santa* mean?
6. Can you explain why so many places in California and the Southwest begin with *San* or *Santa*?
7. How did the Moors come into Spain?
8. What do *toreros*, *picador*, *matador* mean? With what do we associate these words?
9. In pictures of Spain the women often wear mantillas. What are they?
10. What are *castanets*?
11. What are "castles in Spain"?
12. Why did Columbus, who was Italian, sail from Spain to seek the New World?

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare a list of words with which you are familiar in English, French, and Spanish. Put them in parallel columns.

2. Locate on the map some of the most important cities in Spain and in South America.

3. Look up something about Simón Bolívar.

4. What can you tell about San Martín?

5. Look up names of places in the United States that have a Spanish origin.

6. Look up something about bull fights.

7. Find what the following names are known for: El Alhambra, Granada, El Escorial, Barcelona, Río de Janeiro, Buenos Aires, Los Andes, El Amazonas, Vera Cruz, Gibraltar.

8. Make a list of Spanish words used in our everyday life. Examples: *banana*, *tomato*.

9. Look in magazines and newspapers for Spanish words; keep a list.

10. Find out something about "Don Quixote."

11. Look up something about the Spanish painters Velázquez, Murillo, Sorolla, and El Greco.

12. Tell something about Spanish architecture.

13. If you are interested in Spanish songs, you can get some by writing to the Pan-American Union, Washington, D.C.

14. Learn a Spanish song.



Italy and the Italian Language

Rome was once the capital of the world. We have seen that about 2000 years ago the city of Rome in the center of Italy was the capital and mistress of most of the world known to the Romans. But the world has expanded enormously since those days. Powerful na-

tions have developed, great cities are scattered all over the world, but none is the capital of the world today.

In the days of her grandeur Rome was more than a city; she was a state, and stretched her powerful arm in every direction. Other cities in Italy shared her civilization and her culture.

Italy played a leading part in the Renaissance. During the Middle Ages



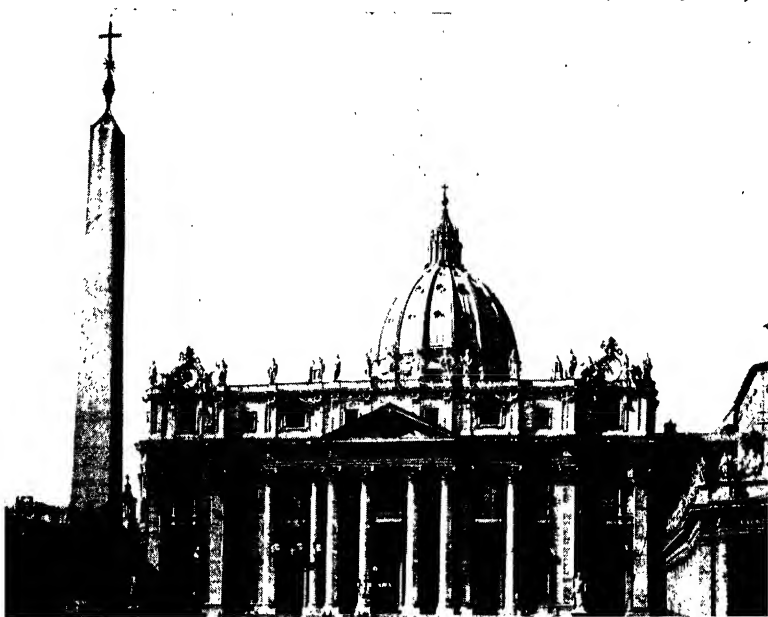
Verdi, Italy's greatest composer. He wrote more than thirty operas, three of which — *Rigoletto*, *Il Trovatore*, and *Aida* — are known all over the world.

ITALIAN

it was Italy that was the center of the *Renaissance*, that period of renewed interest in the past glories of Greece and Rome. It was then that there flourished such cities as Naples, Genoa, Pisa, Padua, Bologna, Milan, Venice, and, greatest of them all, Florence, "The Treasure House of the World" as she is called. These influential cities produced then and later such world-famous men as the writers: Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, Manzoni, D'Annunzio, Pirandello, Deledda, and Carducci; the master travelers: Columbus, Vespucci, Marco Polo, and the Cabot brothers; the scientists: Galileo, Torricelli, Galvani, Volta,

A modern picture of St. Peter's Cathedral in Rome. Founded in 1452, it is the largest church in the world.

By Burton Holmes from Ewing Galloway



SAMPLE LANGUAGES

and Marconi; the musicians: Verdi, Rossini, Puccini, Mascagni, as well as the great singers: Caruso, Gigli, Ponselle, Bori, Schipa, Martinelli, and Martini; artists: Michelangelo Buonarroti, Leonardo da Vinci, Tiziano Vecellio, Raphael Sanzio, and Benvenuto Cellini.

These names and many others form a glorious circle of which Italy may well be proud and for which the world owes her an eternal debt of gratitude.

The Italian language, as we know, is one of the Romance languages like French and Spanish, all of which are derived from Latin.

Here is a list of words that are similar in Latin and Italian. See if you can write an English word that is like each of them.

<i>Latin</i>	<i>Italian</i>
1. littera ¹	lettera
2. populus	popolo
3. longus	lungo
4. tempus	tempo
5. persona	persona
6. status	stato
7. villa	villa
8. datus	dato
9. numerus	numero
10. templum	templo

The English words come from Latin and not from Italian.

The words above that end in *us* in the nominative case in Latin, end in what letter in Italian?

¹ Words that end in *us* and *um* in Latin end in *o* in Italian and are masculine. Words that end in *a* in Latin end in *a* in Italian and are feminine. There are no neuter words in Italian.

ITALIAN

Words that end in *a* in Latin, end in what letter in Italian?

Words that end in *um* in Latin, end in what letter in Italian?

PRELIMINARY LESSON

Familiar Expressions

Buon giorno.	Good day.
Buona notte.	Good night.
Buona sera.	Good evening.
A rivederci.	Good-bye.
Come sta? (singular) Come stanno? (plural)	How are you?
Bene, grazie, e Lei (e Loro)?	Well thanks, and you?
Si sta benissimo, grazie.	Very well, thanks.
Signore.	Sir, Mr.
Signora.	Mrs., lady.
Signorina.	Miss, young lady.
Sì.	Yes.
No.	No.
Per favore.	Please.
Niente.	Don't mention it.
La settimana.	The week.
Lunedì. ¹	Monday.
Martedì.	Tuesday.
Mercoledì.	Wednesday.
Giovedì.	Thursday.
Venerdì.	Friday.
Sabato.	Saturday.
Domenica.	Sunday.
I mesi.	The months.

¹ The grave accent (˘) is placed over the last vowel of a word which has the stress on the last syllable.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

Gennaio.	January.
Febbraio.	February.
Marzo.	March.
Aprile.	April.
Maggio.	May.
Giugno.	June.
Luglio.	July.
Agosto.	August.
Settembre.	September.
Ottobre.	October.
Novembre.	November.
Dicembre.	December.
L'anno. ¹	The year.
Le Stagioni.	The seasons.
La primavera.	Spring.
L'estate.	Summer.
L'autunno.	Autumn.
L'inverno.	Winter.

Numerals

1. un, uno, <i>m.</i> , un', una, <i>f.</i>	15. quindici
2. due	16. sedici
3. tre	17. diciassette
4. quattro	18. diciotto
5. cinque	19. diciannove
6. sei	20. venti
7. sette	21. ventuno
8. otto	22. ventidue
9. nove	30. trenta
10. dieci	31. trentuno
11. undici	32. trentadue
12. dodici	40. quaranta
13. tredici	50. cinquanta
14. quattordici	

¹ The apostrophe indicates that the final vowel of a word has been dropped.

ITALIAN

LESSON I

Ecco una carta geografica d'Italia. È una carta generale. Sicilia è un'isola ed è una parte d'Italia. Sicilia è nel mare Mediterraneo. Sardegna è anche un'isola ed è anche una parte d'Italia. Palermo è una città in Sicilia e Cagliari è una città in Sardegna. Italia è una penisola; non è un'isola. Vi sono molte città famose in Italia. La capitale è Roma. Un'altra città è Venezia. Genova è un'altra città e Milano è anche una città. Un'altra città famose è Napoli. L'isola d'Elba è anche un'isola nel Mediterraneo ed è una parte d'Italia. La Corsica anche è un'isola ed è una parte di Francia; non è una parte d'Italia.

Word List

<i>ecco, here is</i>	<i>anche, also</i>
<i>una carta geografica, a map</i>	<i>città, city</i>
<i>un'isola, an island</i>	<i>vi sono, there are</i>
<i>nel mare, in the sea</i>	<i>un'altra, another</i>

Exercise

1. List in parallel columns Italian and English words which have the same meaning but show differences in spelling.
2. Where is the island of Sicily?
3. Name one city in Sicily.
4. What is the capital of Italy?
5. Name five cities on the mainland of Italy.
6. Name an island in the Mediterranean belonging to France.
7. Is Italy an island? If not, what is it?
8. Locate on the map all the places named in the reading lesson.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

LESSON II

Here is a lesson in Social Science. It is in Italian, but you can read it. See if you have all the answers right. Read all of the paragraph through before you begin the questions at the end.

Italia è in Europa. La (the) capitale d'Italia è Roma. Roma è una città. La città di Roma è antica. La capitale di Spagna è Madrid. La capitale degli (of the) Stati Uniti d'America è Washington. Washington non è una città antica. Washington è una città giovane. Gli (the) Stati Uniti hanno un presidente. L'Italia non ha un presidente; ha un re. La Francia ha un presidente. L'Inghilterra ha un re. La capitale di Francia è Parigi. La capitale di Germania è Berlino.

Word List

è, <i>is</i>	giovane, <i>young, new</i>
antica, <i>old, ancient</i>	ha, <i>has</i>
un re, <i>a king</i>	

Exercise

1. Make a list of words from other languages which are similar to those in this paragraph.
2. Which other languages resemble Italian?
3. What three things does this reading lesson say about Rome?
4. Make a list of Italian words which would be English words if you should merely change one or two letters at the end. Example: Italia, Italy.
5. Here is a list of Italian words that might be used to tell a man's profession. Make a list of English words that mean the same. If you cannot spell the English word, look

ITALIAN

it up in the dictionary. The letter *f* in Italian is often spelled with a *ph* in English.

il professore	il pittore
l'architetto	lo scultore
il fotografo	l'attore
l'ingegnere	il musicista
il medico	lo scrittore

6. Here are some more words in Italian that you know. Copy the words and in a parallel column write their English meanings. Note differences in spelling.

le vacanze	la montagna
il diploma	la penisola
l'università	il porto
il semestre	nord
la punizione	il treno
l'oceano	l'aeroplano
rapido	la bicicletta
stupido	la letteratura

LESSON III

Uomini Famosi

Vi sono molti *uomini* famosi italiani. Marco Polo *fu* il più celebre *viaggiatore* del *Medio Evo*. Marco Polo era un *veneziano*. Dante Alighieri era un *fiorentino*. Egli *scrisse* un grandioso poema intitolato « La Divina Commedia. » Francesco Petrarca e Giovanni Boccaccio *erano toscani*. *Esse* erano *autori*. Un *altro* famoso italiano era Cristoforo Colombo. *Egli* era un *genovese*. Un altro fiorentino *come* Dante Alighieri era Amerigo Vespucci. *Scoprì* le coste dell'America del Sud, come Cristoforo Colombo scoprì il *nuovo mondo*. Leonardo da Vinci era un artista e *nacque* in Italia *nel* anno 1452.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

Fu pittore, scultore, architetto, ingegnere, meccanico, inventore, e poeta. Un altro italiano come Leonardo da Vinci era Michelangelo Buonarroti. Nacque nel anno 1475. Era pittore, architetto, e poeta. Egli *creò* statue famose come: il (the) David, il Mosè, la Pietà, e l'Aurora. Raffaello Sanzio da Urbino nacque nel anno 1483, e era famoso pittore. Egli *fu* il pittore delle Madonne famose.

Word List

uomini, <i>men</i>	esse, <i>they</i>
fu, <i>was</i>	autori, <i>authors</i>
il più, <i>the most</i>	altro, <i>other</i>
viaggiatore, <i>traveler</i>	egli, <i>he</i>
Medio Evo, <i>Middle Ages</i>	genovese, <i>Genoese</i>
veneziano, <i>Venetian</i>	come, <i>like, as</i>
fiorentino, <i>Florentine</i>	scoprì, <i>discovered</i>
scrisse, <i>wrote</i>	nuovo mondo, <i>new world</i>
erano, <i>were</i>	nacque, <i>was born</i>
toscani, <i>Tuscan</i>	nel, <i>in the</i>
	creò, <i>created</i>

Exercise

This exercise is based on the lesson of famous men. Re-read the story carefully and answer the questions about them.

1. What three Italians traveled or discovered new lands?
2. What three Italian authors are of world-wide fame?
3. Can you name three equally famous Italian painters?
4. Which two of these men you have named came from the city of Florence?
5. What famous poem did Dante Alighieri write?
6. For what other things was Leonardo da Vinci famous besides being a painter?

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7. What Italian artist was most famous for his statues?
8. Who was the painter of the Madonnas?
9. Which two authors came from Tuscany?
10. Who discovered the coast of South America?
11. What explorer came from the city of Venice?
12. In what century were Raphael, Leonardo da Vinci, and Michelangelo born?

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How has the world expanded in the last 2000 years?

2. What are some of the greatest cities in the world today?

3. Which is the largest city?

4. What can you tell about the Middle Ages?

5. What great debt does the world owe to the monks and monasteries in the Middle Ages?

6. Did the invention of printing have any effect in spreading culture?

7. Did you ever see copies of the *Mona Lisa*? Do you know anything about it?

8. What do you know about Christopher Columbus?

9. Do you know how America received its name?



Caruso Service

Caruso, the great Italian tenor. One of his favorite rôles was that of the clown in the opera, *I Pagliacci*.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

10. Who was Dante and what can you tell about his great poem?

11. Have you ever heard any of Verdi's great operas? Name some of them.

12. In speaking of electricity we say, "so many *volts*" — Where did we get that word?

13. What do you know about Marconi?

14. Why is Galileo famous?

15. Can you tell anything about the Vatican?

16. Why does the Pope never visit other countries?

17. How do you account for the changes the Latin language underwent to become the Italian of today?

18. Latin was a highly *inflected* language. Is Italian the same?

19. What can you tell about modern Rome?

20. What are some of the things that the world owes to Italy?

ACTIVITIES

1. Look up something about the Renaissance.

2. Find out something about the Crusades and tell how they helped to spread civilization and culture.

3. Find pictures of some of the great cities in Italy, and make a scrapbook of them.

4. Look up something about Florence and the Medici family.

5. Look up something about Michelangelo and his masterpieces.

6. What do you find about Leonardo da Vinci?

7. Tell something about Raphael and his masterpiece "The Sistine Madonna."

8. Go to the art museum and look at some Italian masterpieces.

9. Keep a scrapbook of pictures by the great Italian masters.

ITALIAN

10. Look up something about Venice.
11. Find out something about Vesuvius.
12. Look up something about Pompeii.
13. Learn to sing some Italian songs.
14. Prepare a chart showing how some Latin words have changed in Italian.
15. Find out something about the Leaning Tower of Pisa.

Germany and the German Language

English is a Germanic language. When we were studying something about the early history of England, we saw how different peoples came and settled in Britain, all bringing their languages with them. Among these early settlers in Britain were the Angles and Saxons, who came from Germany and spoke a Germanic language. By the term *Germanic* we do not mean German alone. German and English come from the same source and are, therefore, related languages. Both are Germanic.

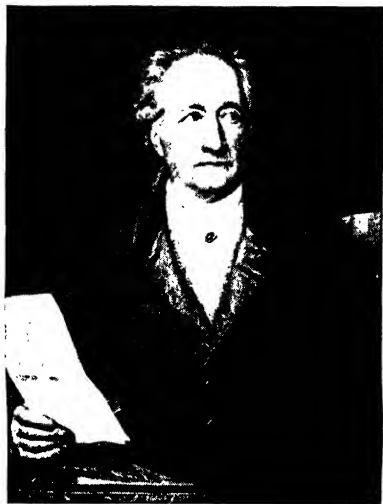
Germanic languages are found also in Sweden, Norway, and Denmark to the north, and in Holland to the west, as well as across the sea in Britain. Look on page 169 and see where these Germanic languages are found.

Germany has many famous cities. Let us look once more at a map of Europe and locate the river Rhine which separates Germany from Holland and France. Find on the map the important German city, Berlin, the capital of Germany, a modern, beautifully planned city. Look for the splendid city of Hamburg, where large ocean liners arrive bringing the products of the world's markets. Find the famous cities of Dresden and Munich, formerly the capitals of the important



SAMPLE LANGUAGES

kingdoms of Saxony and Bavaria. They are renowned as the centers of art, music, and learning. Then look over at Nuremberg, forever associated with the name of the great master artist, Albrecht Dürer. Move west-



Johann Wolfgang von Goethe.

ward to Heidelberg, that old university city famed in song and story. From there go north to Mainz, and then in imagination board a ship for a trip down the Rhine to Köln (Cologne). That journey on the Rhine takes you through a veritable fairyland with legendary castles and stately old ruins rising on both banks of the river which winds along for miles and miles through beautiful scenery. Such vineyards as you see! No wonder Rhine wine is famous the world over!

Germany has played a great role in modern culture. Germany has not only great cities; she has also famous names in literature, art, music, and science. Such men as Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, regarded by many as the greatest genius that the world has ever produced, whose famous drama *Faust* is one of the world's great masterpieces. With Goethe we always associate his friend Friedrich von Schiller, the author of *Wilhelm*

GERMAN

Tell and many other great plays. Other well-known writers are: Lessing, Hauptmann, and Sudermann.

We must not forget to name the "Father of Modern Music," Johann Sebastian Bach, who stands as one of the foremost musical geniuses not only of Germany, but of the world. There are other great musicians who deserve mention also: Händel, Mozart, Haydn, Beethoven, Schumann, Brahms, Strauss, and Wagner.

Not only has Germany produced great writers and great artists, but also great thinkers and great scientists. People have come from everywhere to study in Germany at her great universities, her technical schools, her medical schools, and her art and music centers.

The German and English languages have much in common. It is easy to see why a knowledge of the German language is valuable to all who are interested in any cultural and scientific work. The samples of German which follow will show how many German words can be readily understood by an English-speaking person. This is because the Germanic parent language gave English its basic vocabulary. The most commonly used words in English are Germanic, such as, *the* (German, *die*), *this* (*dies*), *that* (*das*), *father* (*Vater*¹), *mother* (*Mutter*), *brother* (*Bruder*), *eat* (*essen*), *drink* (*trinken*), *sleep* (*schlafen*), *live* (*leben*), *hand* (*Hand*), *foot* (*Fuss*), *eye* (*Auge*), *ear* (*Ohr*), *hair* (*Haar*). The English possessive ending (*boy's*), the English vowel changes in verbs, such as, *see* (*sehen*), *saw* (*sah*), *give* (*geben*), *gave* (*gab*); its vowel changes

¹ Nouns are written with initial capital letters in German.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

in nouns such as *foot* (*Fuss*), *feet* (*Füsse*), *man* (*Mann*), *men* (*Männer*), are all characteristic of the Germanic languages.

Some knowledge of German is highly important to the student of English because, in spite of the many Latin derivatives, basically English is more closely related to German than to any other important modern language.

PRELIMINARY LESSON

Familiar Expressions

Guten Morgen, mein Herr, wie geht's Ihnen?	Good morning, sir. How are you?
Danke schön, mir geht's gut und wie befinden Sie sich?	Thanks, I am well, and how are you?
Guten Tag, Frau Schmidt.	How do you do, Mrs. Schmidt.
Guten Abend, mein Fräulein.	Good evening, Miss.
Gute Nacht, meine Freunde.	Good night, my friends.
Schönes Wetter heute, nicht wahr?	Fine weather today, isn't it?
Ja, aber ein Bisschen zu warm.	Yes, but a bit too warm.
Bitte, übersetzen Sie den Satz.	Please translate the sen- tence.
Verstehen Sie?	Do you understand?
Nein, ich verstehe nicht.	No, I don't understand.
Auf Wiedersehen!	Good-bye! (until we see each other again)

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Numerals

1. eins	18. achtzehn
2. zwei	19. neunzehn
3. drei	20. zwanzig
4. vier	21. einundzwanzig
5. fünf	22. zweiundzwanzig
6. sechs	23. dreiundzwanzig
7. sieben	24. vierundzwanzig
8. acht	25. fünfundzwanzig
9. neun	26. sechsundzwanzig
10. zehn	27. siebenundzwanzig
11. elf	28. achtundzwanzig
12. zwölf	29. neunundzwanzig
13. dreizehn	30. dreissig
14. vierzehn	31. einunddreissig
15. fünfzehn	40. vierzig
16. sechzehn	41. einundvierzig
17. siebzehn	50. fünfzig

LESSON I

German and English have a great many words so similar that we readily see that they are *cognate*; that is, related. The word *cognate* comes from the Latin *co* meaning "with" and *gnatus* meaning "born"; that is, born from the same parent language. The following pairs of words are cognates:

<i>English</i>	<i>German</i>
word	Wort
house	Haus
came	kam
hungry	hungrig
father	Vater
brother	Bruder

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

<i>English</i>	<i>German</i>
thanks	Dank
foot	Fuss
sleep	schlafen
two	zwei

There are certain regular sound shiftings whereby an English word with *p* has *f* or *pf* in German; for example: *help* — *helfen*. English *d* is *t* in German; for example: *drink* — *trinken*; *dance* — *tanz*. English *t* is *z* or *tz* in German; for example: *ten* — *zehn*; *cat* — *Katze*. English *v* is *b* in German; for example: *live* — *leben*; *over* — *ober*, *über*.

Of course, there are exceptions to these rules, so we must not expect these changes to appear regularly in all German and English cognates; but these changes are helpful in finding the English and German words that are cognate. See how easy it is to read the following paragraph.

Mein Name ist Fritz Baumgartner. Meine Familie kam aus Deutschland her. Mein Vater ist in Hamburg geboren. Meine Mutter ist in Berlin geboren, *aber* ich bin in Amerika, in Chicago, geboren. Mein Vater und meine Mutter *sprechen* Deutsch, aber sie sprechen auch Englisch. Ich kann auch Deutsch sprechen; ich lerne Deutsch in der Schule. Ich habe einen Bruder, Heinrich, und eine Schwester, Anna. Mein Bruder ist Student auf der Universität von Chicago. Er studiert Medizin. Er will Doktor *werden*. Ich bin in der Hochschule. Ich will *nicht* auf die Universität gehen, ich will Ball *spielen*, wie Di Maggio; er ist *famos*! Ich finde meine Studien interessant *genug*, aber ich spiele *lieber*

GERMAN

Ball. Mein Vater sagt: „Fritz ist zu jung, er ist nicht alt genug, *um zu wissen*, was er will.“ *Ich weiss* wohl, was ich will, ich will nächsten Winter nach Florida gehen. Im Winter ist das Wetter kalt im Norden, aber im Süden ist es warm. Meine Familie ist *jetzt* in Florida und *dort* ist es warm *wie* im Sommer. Das Gras ist grün, die Blumen blühen, und das Wasser ist warm, so dass man im Ozean baden kann. Man liegt im Sande und die Sonne scheint heiss. Ich muss einen *Brief* an meine Mutter *schreiben*. Ich hoffe, dass meine Mutter *mir* das *Geld* sendet, so dass ich zum Neujahrstage *nach* Florida *reisen* kann.

Word List

aber, <i>but</i>	ich weiss, <i>I know</i>
sprechen, <i>speak</i>	jetzt, <i>now</i>
werden, <i>become</i>	dort, <i>there</i>
nicht, <i>not</i>	wie, <i>as, like</i>
spielen, <i>play</i>	Brief, <i>letter</i>
famos, <i>grand, swell</i>	schreiben, <i>write</i>
genug, <i>enough</i>	mir, <i>to me</i>
lieber, <i>rather</i>	Geld, <i>money</i>
um zu, <i>in order to</i>	nach, <i>to</i>
wissen, <i>to know</i>	reisen, <i>travel, go</i>

Of course you notice many things about this German language that you do not understand. For instance, all nouns are written with initial capital letters. Sometimes a word is preceded by *mein*, sometimes by *meine*. Sometimes we find *im*, then again *in*. Some verbs stand at the end of the sentence, like *werden, geboren, gehen, schreiben, sendet, reisen kann*.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

We shall discover that all of these are characteristic of the language, and once we have learned it, it is easy enough. But these peculiarities make German hard for us to learn, because English, which once had some of these same peculiarities, no longer has them. We do not end our English sentences with one or more verbs like the last one in our German example: "So that I for New Year's Day to Florida travel can."

LESSON II

Der Sommer ist *die* warme Jahreszeit. Die Monate Juni, Juli, und August *sind* Sommermonate. Der Sommer beginnt *am* einundzwanzigsten Juni and endet *am* einundzwanzigsten September. *Dann* kommt der Herbst. Die Herbstmonate sind: September, Oktober, und November. Der Herbst ist eine *schöne* Jahreszeit. *Im* Herbst sind die *Blätter der Bäume oft viel-*farbig, grün, gelb, rot, und braun. *Später* fallen die Blätter und dann *verbrennt man sie*. Die Wintermonate sind: Dezember, Januar, und Februar. Der Winter ist die kalte Jahreszeit. Der Winter beginnt *am* einundzwanzigsten Dezember. *Am* fünfundzwanzigsten Dezember *haben wir Weihnachten*. Das ist das schöne Kinderfest zum *Andenken* an die Geburt des Christkinds. *Am* fünfundzwanzigsten Dezember *sagt man zu seinen Freunden* „Fröhliche Weihnachten,“ und dann singt man, „O Tannenbaum, O Tannenbaum, wie grün sind deine Blätter.“ Man singt *auch*, „Stille Nacht, heilige Nacht,“ und *andere deutsche Lieder*.

GERMAN

Word List

die Jahreszeit, <i>the season</i>	das Kinderfest, <i>the children's feast</i>
die Monate, <i>the months</i>	zum Andenken, <i>in memory of</i>
und, <i>and</i>	Geburt, <i>birth</i>
sind, <i>are</i>	des Christkindes, <i>of the Christchild</i>
am, <i>on the</i>	sagt, <i>say</i>
dann, <i>then</i>	man, <i>we, you, people</i>
schöne, <i>beautiful</i>	zu seinen Freunden, <i>to his (our, your, their) friends</i>
im, <i>in the</i>	Fröhliche Weihnachten, <i>Happy Christmas</i>
Blätter der Bäume, <i>the leaves of the trees</i>	Tannenbaum, <i>Christmas (pine) tree</i>
oft, <i>often</i>	auch, <i>also</i>
vielfarbig, <i>many-colored</i>	stille Nacht, <i>silent night</i>
gelb, <i>yellow</i>	heilige, <i>holy</i>
rot, <i>red</i>	andere, <i>other</i>
später, <i>later</i>	deutsche, <i>German</i>
verbrennt man sie, <i>people (we, you) burn them</i>	Lieder, <i>songs</i>
haben, <i>have</i>	
wir, <i>we</i>	
sie, <i>they, them</i>	
Weihnachten, <i>Christmas</i>	

LESSON III

Am *ersten* Januar haben wir *Neujahr* und dann grüsst man seine Freunde *mit* den *Worten*, „Glückliches Neujahr.“

Am einundzwanzigsten März beginnt der Frühling. Die Frühlingsmonate sind: März, April, und Mai. *Jetzt* wissen wir *die Namen* der zwölf Monate des Jahres. *Welches* sind die Namen der zwölf Monate?

Ein Monat hat vier Wochen. *Eine Woche* hat sieben Tage. *Die sieben Tage* der Woche sind: Sonntag,

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

Montag, Dienstag, Mittwoch, Donnerstag, Freitag, und Samstag.

Nennen Sie die vier Jahreszeiten, bitte.

Welches sind die Herbstmonate?

Wieviel Tage hat ein Monat?

Word List

ersten, *first*

Neujahr, *New Year*

grüsst, *greet*

mit, *with*

Worten, *words*

jetzt, *now*

wissen, *know*

die Namen, *the names*

welches, *what*

eine Woche, *a week*

die Tage, *the days*

nennen Sie, *name*

bitte, *please*

LESSON IV

Der Tag hat vierundzwanzig Stunden. *Eine Stunde* hat sechzig Minuten. Eine Minute hat sechzig Sekunden. *Wieviel Uhr* ist es? Es ist *ein Uhr*.



Es ist ein
Uhr



Es ist *halb*
drei (Uhr)



Es ist zehn
Minuten
nach drei



Es ist ein
Viertel
nach fünf



Lindquist

Es ist ein
Viertel
vor acht

Word List

eine Stunde, *an hour*

Wieviel Uhr? *what time?*

ein Uhr, *one o'clock*

halb drei, *half past two*

nach, *after*, *past*

vor, *to*, *of*

ein Viertel, *a quarter*

GERMAN

LESSON V

Eine Familie besteht aus den Eltern, einem Vater und einer Mutter — und den Kindern — Söhnen und Töchtern.

Mein Vater *heisst* Karl Braun und meine Mutter *heisst* Anna Braun. Ich habe einen Bruder. Karl, und eine Schwester, Gretchen. Der Bruder meines Vaters ist mein Onkel, die Schwester meiner Mutter ist meine Tante, Elise. Meine Tante Elise ist Frau Müller, *ihr Mann* heisst Wilhelm Müller. Ihr Sohn heisst Fritz, er ist mein *Vetter*. Meine Tante hat eine Tochter, Maria, sie ist meine Kusine. Ich habe auch einen Grossvater und eine Grossmutter. Die Eltern meiner Eltern sind meine Grosseltern. Wir sind eine grosse Familie. Wir haben viele *Verwandte*.

Word List

eine Familie, <i>a family</i>	die Tochter (Töchter),
besteht aus, <i>consists of</i>	<i>daughter (daughters)</i>
Eltern, (<i>elders</i>) <i>parents</i>	ihr Mann, <i>her husband</i>
Kinder, <i>children</i>	heisst, <i>is called</i>
der Sohn (Söhne), <i>son</i>	Vetter, <i>male cousin</i>
(<i>sons</i>)	Verwandte, <i>relatives</i>

Let us examine this reading lesson more closely, comparing it with English. The small words which modify the nouns are usually the keys to the use of the nouns, that is, *Mein* Vater is subject, *Meines* Vaters is possessive, *Meinen* Vater is direct object, *Meinem* Vater is indirect object or used after certain prepositions. *Meine*

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Grosseltern is plural. This means that German, like Latin, is an inflected language. (See page 270.) Perhaps you do not know that English was formerly like German, *my* was only one form of the pronominal adjective. We still have some inflected forms, such as, *I, mine, me; she, her; he, his, him;* etc. It looks as if it would be harder to learn German because of all these inflections, but they are quite regular, so that when you have once learned them they are not any harder than some peculiarities in English. A foreigner trying to learn English always marvels at the queer conjugation of the verb *to be*, which starts *I am, thou art, he is, we are;* then follows *I was, they were;* and *I have been.* Is he not justified in asking why we call it *to be*? Whenever we think other languages are queer, let us recall this English verb which seems easy enough to us. You probably do not even remember when you first learned it. Your ear is trained to hear the combination *I am;* you would not say *I be.*

To learn a language, we need to use our ears to hear it, our eyes to see it, our mouths to speak it, and our hands to write it.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Is English more like High German or Low German?
2. What are *guttural* sounds? How do we pronounce *ich, nicht, doch, Buch*?
3. How does it happen that the Franks, a German tribe, gave their name to France?
4. How does it happen that the Franks adopted the Latin spoken in Gaul?

GERMAN

5. How does it happen that *Yiddish*, spoken by most Jews, is a form of German?

6. German has some very long words because they form compounds where we use separate words, for example: *Life Insurance Company*, *Lebensversicherungsgesellschaft*. Can you find others?

7. Instead of Greek and Latin words for new inventions, German finds words to express the same idea in the native language; for example: *telephone*, *Fernsprecher*; *automobile*, *Kraftwagen*; *submarine*, *Unterseeboot*; *aeroplane*, *Flugzeug*. Can you find others?

8. If you have ever been in Germany, can you tell the class something about it?

9. What does German printing often look like?

10. Do the Germans often use the same print that we do?

11. Can you read German script? See if you can. Write your name in German script.

12. What does "Stille Nacht, heilige Nacht" mean? When did you hear it?

13. How do the Germans celebrate Christmas?

14. Have you ever heard a German opera? If so, tell the class about it.

15. Do the endings showing changes in use in German make it easier or harder to learn? Why?

16. How do the sounds of the German numerals given on page 351 differ from those of the corresponding English numerals?

Stille Nacht, heilige Nacht

J. Mohr

F. Gruber

Sanft und getragen



1. Stil - le Nacht, hei - li - ge Nacht!
2. Stil - le Nacht, hei - li - ge Nacht!
3. Stil - le Nacht, hei - li - ge Nacht!



Al - les schläft, ein - sam wacht
Hir - ten erst kund ge - macht
Got - tes Sohn, o wie lacht



nur das trau - te, hoch - hei - li - ge Paar.
durch der En - gel Hal - le - lu - ja,
Lieb aus dei - nem gött - li - chen Mund,

Hol - der Kna - be im lo - cki - gen Haar,
 tönt es laut — von fern — und nah:
 da uns schlägt die ret - ten - de Stund,

Schlaf in himm - li - scher Ruh, —
 Christ, der Ret - ter, ist da, —
 Christ, in dei - ner Ge - burt, —

Schlaf in himm - li - scher Ruh! —
 Christ, der Ret - ter, ist da! —
 Christ, in dei - ner Ge - burt! —

Stille Nacht, heilige Nacht

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

ACTIVITIES

1. List some Germanic languages other than German and English and tell where they are spoken today.
2. Find out how many people speak German as their native language and where they live.
3. Find out the difference between High German and Low German.
4. Find on the map the different states that form Germany and list them.
5. Tell something about the castles on the Rhine.
6. Tell something about the Passion Play at Oberammergau in Bavaria.
7. List as many words as you can which are exactly alike in English and German.
8. Tell something about Karl der Grosse, or Charlemagne.
9. Look up the names *Goths*, *Franks*, and *Allimanni*.
10. Tell what you can about the Danube and the Elbe Rivers.
11. Learn the German song "Die Lorelei," imitating your teacher's pronunciation of the words.
12. Learn "O Tannenbaum, O Tannenbaum," imitating your teacher's pronunciation of the words.
13. Make a scrapbook of pictures of German musicians.
14. Make a list of modern inventions in German and note that they avoid the use of Latin and Greek words.
15. Find out something about the German gods of ancient times and then tell where the names of the days of the week came from.
16. Look up something about the following Germans: Robert Koch, Wilhelm Röntgen, Hermann von Helmholtz, Ferdinand Zeppelin.
17. Find out something about the Germans who have played an important part in the United States; for example: Carl Schurz and Baron Von Steuben.

The Polish Language

Polish belongs to the Slavic group of the Indo-European family of languages. This group is numerically very important, for no less than 225,000,000 people speak some Slavic tongue (Russian, Polish, Czech, Slovak, Bulgarian, Serbian, etc.). Some scholars believe that in the early centuries of the Christian Era all of these languages had one common ancestor in the form of an ancient Slavic tongue spoken by the primitive Slavs. These peoples, roughly speaking, occupied the territory bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea, on the south by the Adriatic and the Black Seas, on the west by the Elbe River, and on the east by the Dnieper River.

The Poles have a long history. Although the Poles, or the inhabitants of the plains or fields (*pole* means *field* or *plain*) were known to have dwelled along the Vistula River as far back as the sixth century A.D., their history was merely legendary until Mieszko I became king in 962. This first historical Polish king converted his people to the Roman form of Christianity, a fact of great significance; for by becoming Roman Catholic, Poland culturally and socially joined the nations of western Europe. This explains why Polish culture is thoroughly Western (not Eastern as is that of Russia),

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why the Poles use the Latin alphabet, and why its foreign words came principally from Latin, French, and German.

What are the chief characteristics of the Polish language? First of all, it is strictly phonetic; that is, its pronunciation conforms strictly to the spelling. Of all the Slavic languages, it is the only one which possesses nasal vowels, which give Polish a certain similarity in sound to the French. The Polish vowels are always short; the accent always falls on the next to the last syllable (penult) ; there are three genders; there are no articles. And we find that nouns have seven cases. The vocabulary of the language is very rich, and great use is made of the so-called diminutives and augmentatives. The diminutive form gives to a word a sense of smallness, daintiness—something like the English *girl*, *girlie*—while the augmentative conveys the idea of bigness, clumsiness, ugliness, etc. Thus out of the word *dom* (house), one can create *domek* (little house), *domeczek* (tiny, little house), *domeczuś* (pretty, cozy, little house), *domisko* (ugly, old house), etc. This can be done with almost any noun in Polish, and the shades of meaning thus obtained are sometimes so delicate and subtle as to practically defy translation. Another thing that is noteworthy about the Polish language is that the use of prefixes gives it a great capacity for word formation. Thus, by the addition of various prefixes to the verb *dać* (to give), for instance, one can obtain at least ten other derived verbs, each having a different meaning: *dodać* (to add), *oddać* (to give back), *rozdać* (to distribute).



Courtesy of Gdynia-America Line

Wawel Castle in Krakow, the Westminster Abbey of Poland. Here all Polish heroes are buried. Among these are Copernicus, Kosciusko, and Pilsudski, whose names are well known to students of science and history the world over.

What are the advantages of studying Polish? In the first place, there are no less than 4,000,000 Poles in the United States. We can readily see what an asset it would be for a professional or a businessman — or a politician — if he could understand the language of these people. Then again, the understanding of Polish gives one a key to all of the other Slavic languages.

In addition, Polish has much to offer intellectually and culturally. The language, through its exacting grammar, trains the mind to be very observant and very precise. Careless thinking and correct Polish simply

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do not go together. Then, through the course of her 1000 years of existence as a nation, Poland has given the world many great men and women and has contributed a worthy share to the sum total of the world's culture. The following names of Poland's great sons and daughters are generally known to most of you: Copernicus, Marie Skłodowska Curie, Chopin, Paderewski, Józef Hofmann, Leopold Stokowski, Joseph Conrad (who wrote in English), Pułaski, and Kościuszko. And there are many others that could be mentioned. Furthermore, Poland's literature is very rich and very interesting. Two of her writers, Henryk Sienkiewicz and Władysław Reymont, received the Nobel prize, and their works have been translated into over twenty languages. Many of us no doubt have read *Quo Vadis* by Sienkiewicz, or have seen it as a movie. We may have also read Ossendowski's thrilling adventure stories. Reymont's famous *Peasants* can be found in the English translation in any of our libraries, and lately the greatest work in the Polish literature *Pan Tadeusz*, an epic by Adam Mickiewicz, Poland's greatest poet, has been placed among the books of the well-known "Everyman's Library." Many other Polish works are available in English translation, and a librarian will be glad to furnish a complete list.

The picture on the opposite page is by courtesy of the Polish Art Service.



SAMPLE LANGUAGES

PRELIMINARY LESSON

A. Dzień dobry (Panu) , (Pani) .

Good day, (Sir), (Madame).

B. Dzień dobry. Jak się (Pan) , (Pani) ma?

Good day. How are you, (Sir) (Madame)?

A. Dosyć dobrze. dziękuję. A u (Pana) (Pani) co

Quite well, thank you. And what is new with you?

nowego?

B. Nic tak specjalnie, tylko, że wyjeżdżam do Europe.

Nothing so special except that I am going to Europe.

A. Z którego portu myjeżdża (Pan) (Pani) ?

From which port are you leaving?

B. Z Nowego Yorku.

From New York.

A. Proszę nie zapominać o mnie w Europe.

Please do not forget about me while in Europe.

B. O, nie. Napiszę (Panu) (Pani) długi list.

Oh, no. I shall write you a long letter.

A. Doskonale! Więc życzę (Panu) (Pani) szczęśliwej

That is fine! Well, bon voyage!

podróży.

B. Dziękuję uprzejmie. A ponieważ już się nie zo-

Thank you very much. And since we shall probably not see

baczymy, więc do widzenia (Panu) (Pani) .

each other again, I shall say: Good-bye.

A. Do widzenia! Do widzenia.!

Good-bye!

Good-bye!

Word List

Dzień dobry.

Good day. Good morning.

Dobry wieczór.

Good evening.

POLISH

Dobra noc.	Good night.
Co słyhać?	What is the news?
Jak się Pan ma?	How are you, Sir?
Jak się Pani ma?	How are you, Madam?
Dziękuję.	Thank you.
Proszę.	You are welcome.
Przepraszam.	I beg your pardon.
Szkoda!	That is too bad!
Szczęśliwej podróży.	Bon voyage.
Wesołych Świąt.	Merry Christmas.
Szczęśliwego Nowego Roku.	Happy New Year.
Do widzenia.	Good-bye.

Days of the Week

Niedziela	— Sunday	Marzec	— March
Poniedziałek	— Monday	Kwiecień	— April
Wtorek	— Tuesday	Maj	— May
Środa	— Wednesday	Czerwiec	— June
Czwartek	— Thursday	Lipiec	— July
Piątek	— Friday	Sierpień	— August
Sobota	— Saturday	Wrzesień	— September

The Months

Styczeń	— January	Październik	— October
Luty	— February	Listopad	— November
		Grudzień	— December

Numbers

jeden	— 1	jedenaste	— 11
dwa	— 2	dwanaście	— 12
trzy	— 3	trzynaście	— 13
cztery	— 4	czternaście	— 14
pięć	— 5	piętnaście	— 15
sześć	— 6	szesnaście	— 16
siedem	— 7	siedemnaście	— 17
ośm	— 8	ośmnaście	— 18
dziewięć	— 9	dziewiętnaście	— 19
dziesięć	— 10	dwadzieścia	— 20

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

LESSON I

The following list shows cognates in Polish, English and other languages.

<i>Polish</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>German</i>
1. papier	paper	papier	Papier
2. lampa	lamp	lampe	Lampe
3. maszyna	machine	machine	Maschine
4. wino	wine	vin	Wein
5. zupa	soup	soupe	Suppe
6. dama	dame	dame	Dame
7. orkiestra	orchestra	orchestre	Orchester
8. stenografja	stenography	sténographique	Stenographie
9. sylaba	syllable	syllabe	Silbe
10. dyktando	dictation	dictée	Diktat
11. kalendarz	calendar	calendrier	Kalender
12. róža	rose	rose	Rose
13. kot	cat	chat	Katze
14. suma	sum	somme	Summe
15. marynarz	mariner	marinier	Marine
16. majster	master	maître	Meister
17. typ	type	type	Typus
18. metoda	method	méthode	Methode
19. maj	May	mai	Mai
20. korona	crown	couronne	Krone

Find an English word which you think means the same as the Polish words listed below.

- | | |
|---------------|---------------|
| 1. karnawał | 11 girafa |
| 2. kasjer | 12 lista |
| 3. fatyga | 13 artykuł |
| 4. delikatny | 14 parasol |
| 5. bukiet | 15 inżynier |
| 6. bankrut | 16. elektryka |
| 7. fotografja | 17. kurtyna |
| 8. koszt | 18. komedja |
| 9. cukier | 19. unja |
| 10. ideał | 20. gramatyka |

POLISH

LESSON II

See how much of this you can understand:

Detroit *jest* centrem automobilowem. *Mamy* tu uniwersytety, szkoły, hotele, szpitale, teatry, kina, muzea, biblioteki, banki, fabryki i parki. *Mamy* tu *też* kilku milionerów. Czy *Pan* jest milionerem? *Ja?* O nie! *Ja* jestem *tylko* mizernym profesorem.

Jan i Marja Z. (*brat i siostra*) są studentami na Uniwersytecie Wayne. *On* będzie adwokatem a *ona* doktorem medecyny. Studjują *oni* literaturę angielską, chemję, fizykę, łacinę, i francuskie. *Oni nie* studjują *ani* hiszpańskiego ani greki. Jan i Marja *mają* nowy elegancki automobil, marki Chrysler, *k który w nocy stoi* w garażu. *Ja lubię* Jana i Marję, *bo* są inteligentni, kulturalni i sympatyczni. *Widzę ich co dzień*, bo nasz dom *stoi obok* domu ich *matki*.

Marja jest muzykalna i *bardzo* lubi kompozytorów polskich, *jak* Chopina, Wieniawskiego, *oraz* tańce polskie, *jak* polkę, mazura, poloneza. (*Polonez to taniec arystokracji polskiej.*)

Aha! Czy *widział* Pan film "Conquest" w Movie Palace? Jest to interesujący romans *między* ambitnym Napoleonem a patrijotyczną i lojalną Marją Walewską. (Napoleon to francuz, a Marja Walewska to polka). Rolę Marji Walewskiej *gra* szwedka, Greta Garbo, artystka bardzo utalentowana, a rolę Napoleona *gra* *sympatyczny* aktor francuski, Charles Boyer.

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

Word List

jest, <i>is</i> (Lat. <i>est</i> , Fr. <i>est</i> , Ger. <i>ist</i>)	mamy, <i>we have</i>
i, <i>and</i> (Sp. <i>y</i>)	tu, <i>here</i>
też, <i>also</i>	w, <i>in</i>
kilku, <i>several</i> (Fr. <i>quelques</i>)	nocy, <i>night</i> (Lat. <i>nox</i>)
czy (introduces a question)	stoi, <i>stands</i> (Lat. <i>sto</i>)
pan, <i>sir, mister, lord</i> (Gr. <i>pan</i> , <i>one who feeds</i>)	lubię, <i>I like</i> (Ger. <i>lieben</i>)
ja, <i>I</i> (Fr. <i>je</i>)	bo, <i>because</i>
tylko, <i>only</i>	widzę, <i>I see</i> (Lat. <i>video</i>)
pani, <i>madam</i> (more respectful than <i>panna</i> , <i>miss</i>)	ich, <i>them, their</i>
na, <i>on, in</i>	co, <i>every, what</i>
szef, <i>chief</i> (Fr. <i>chef</i>)	dzień, <i>day</i> (Lat. <i>diem</i>)
tym, <i>this</i>	nasz, <i>our</i> (Fr. <i>nos</i>)
samym, <i>same</i>	dom, <i>house, home</i> (Lat. <i>domus</i>)
brat, <i>brother</i> (Lat. <i>frat-er</i>)	obok, <i>long side of</i>
siostra, <i>sister</i>	matki, <i>mother</i> (Lat. <i>mater</i>)
on, <i>he</i>	bardzo, <i>very, very much</i>
a, <i>and</i>	jak, <i>such as, how</i>
ona, <i>she</i>	oraz, <i>also</i>
oni, <i>they</i>	to, <i>it is, is, this</i>
nie, ani, ani, <i>neither, nor</i> (Fr. <i>ne, ni, ni</i>)	widział, <i>he saw</i> (Lat. <i>vidit</i>)
mają, <i>they have</i>	między, <i>between</i>
który, <i>which</i>	gra, <i>plays</i>
	sympatyczny, <i>congenial, pleasant</i> (Fr. <i>sympathique</i>)

Answer the following questions based on the above text:

1. *Czem jest Detroit?*
2. *Co mamy w Detroit?*
3. *Kto jest mayorem w Detroit?*
4. *Kto jest dyrektorem szkół w Detroit?*
5. *Kto jest Pani Lindquist?*

POLISH

6. Kto jest szefem departamentu francuskiego w Uniwersytecie Wayne?
7. Czy Jan i Marja *są* kuzyni?
8. Czem *będzie* Jan? A Marja czym będzie?
9. Co studjują oni na Uniwersytecie Wayne?
10. Czy Jan i Marja mają automobil marki Forda?
11. *Gdzie* (where) stoi ich elegancki automobil w nocy?
12. Których kompozytorów polskich lubi Marja?
13. Co to jest "polonez"?
14. Kto gra rolę Marji Walewskiej w "Conquest"?
15. Kto gra rolę Napoleona?

Word List

czem, *what*

kto, *who*

są, *are* (Fr. *sont*)

będzie, *will be*

gdzie, *where*



0 50 100 250
Scale of Miles



MEDITERRANEAN
SEA



Greece and the Greek Language

The whole world looks with admiration on ancient Greece. Of all the civilizations of the ancient world, that of the Greeks is most to be envied. Blessed as we are, surrounded with comforts and the conveniences of present-day life, we look with amazement on the achievements of the Greeks in architecture, sculpture, painting, literature, and drama, all of which surpassed in beauty anything seen before them in the ancient world. These fortunate people were able to accomplish so much because, as free men, they believed in a democracy, pursued art and literature in a simple and direct manner, loved beautiful things, possessed great natural ability, and were always ready and eager to do their work well.

The Greeks were free men living in a real democracy. Look on a map for the Greek city Athens, which was the first democracy. Every citizen had a voice in its free government. Voters of today could well profit by the example of the Athenian citizen who felt it a disgrace not to take part in the tasks of governing his city.

We could follow the example the Greeks set us as citizens. All citizens were equal; they participated in making, as well as in enforcing, the laws. What is

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

more, the Greek democracy was no empty theory of an ideal government; it was the result of actual experiments to find the form affording the most freedom for all.

The Greek ideal of beauty was perfect proportion and grace. Great size, large expense, and elaborate decoration



Ewing Galloway

do not always make things beautiful. Perfect proportions and graceful design were the Greek ideals. They knew how to design beautiful buildings, to carve graceful statues, and to write poetry that appeals to all mankind. They lived with beauty; their home, cooking utensils, and clothes, all reflected an appreciation of the truly artistic.

What do we owe to Greece? To the Greeks we are indebted for a wonderful literature; the delightful stories of the wanderings of Ulysses; the stirring tragedies of Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides; the purposeful humor of Aristophanes; the enlightening histories of Herodotus and Thucydides; and the profound philosophy of Plato — all of which have served as models for the literature of succeeding civilizations, including our own.

G R E E K

To have a well-trained mind in a trained and beautiful body was the Greek ideal. All the young men of Athens and Sparta took part in contests; there were no "wallflowers." Wisdom and training were for everyone, but nothing was done to excess. Their sense of proportion and beauty serves as a standard for the whole world.

The high ideals of the first great physician. The Greeks gave us the first great man in the science of medicine, Hippocrates. The principles laid down by this great doctor, like the principles expounded by Greek scholars in other branches of learning, differ little from those of doctors and scientists today. "The love of the art of healing is the same as the love of man," said Hippocrates. And what more can we ask of any civilization than the application of that statement to every action of daily living? It is an ideal come to life — the love of the art of healing the world physically, mentally, socially, culturally, and politically, all interpreted as the love of man.

This, then, is what the ancient Greeks offer to our present-day civilization: an example of all that is noble and beautiful.

PRELIMINARY LESSON

Greek

We have seen that the English language has enriched itself by borrowing wherever and whenever it needed words to express more forcibly or more clearly an exact meaning or a shade of difference. You recall that Eng-

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

lish has over fifty per cent Latin in its make-up, but it also has taken over bodily a large quantity of Greek words. These Greek words are mostly technical and scientific terms, but some of them are used so frequently that we have forgotten their foreign origin. Among these may be mentioned *photograph*, *syllable*, *analysis*, *sympathy*, *program*, *period*, *apology*, *democrat*, *politics*, and many others.

It is because so many words will have much more definite meanings for us if we know their structure that we are now going to undertake a brief study of some of the most common Greek roots and some frequently used prefixes. It will be a splendid opportunity for you to enrich your vocabulary.

Here is the Greek alphabet in case you care to learn it:

A	α	alpha	a	(ä)	N	ν	nu	n	(n)
B	β	beta	b	(b)	Ξ	ξ	xi	x	(ks)
Γ	γ	gamma	g	(g)	Ο	ο	omicron	o	(ö)
Δ	δ	delta	d	(d)	Π	π	pi	p	(p)
Ε	ε	epsilon	e	(ě)	Ρ	ρ	rho	r	(r)
Ζ	ζ	zeta	z	(z)	Σ	σ	sigma	s	(s)
Η	η	eta	e	(ā)	Τ	τ	tau	t	(t)
Θ	θ	theta	th	(th)	Υ	υ	upsilon	u	(ōō, ü)
Ι	ι	iota	i	(ē)	Φ	φ	phi	ph	(f)
Κ	κ	kappa	k, c	(k)	Χ	χ	chi	ch	(k)
Λ	λ	lambda	l	(l)	Ψ	ψ	psi	ps	(ps)
Μ	μ	mu	m	(m)	Ω	ω	omega	o	(ō)

What is a Greek letter fraternity? Do you know any?

G R E E K

PRELIMINARY LESSON

A Visitor Who Came to Stay

A little Greek followed me to school today. He showed up in the most unexpected ways. After a few friendly gestures, we became such inseparable friends that I forgot about his being a foreigner, and I invited him to stay.

During the school homeroom period Peter and George gave a safety dialogue about bicyclists stopping for the semaphore lights on street corners.

Our mathematics teacher, or pedagogue, as my friend Helen calls her, discussed the Pythagorean theorem about the hypotenuse of a right-angle triangle. That's really geometry, but we later understood it.

English was fun. We played games with synonyms and homonyms. We are going to study antonyms soon.

After some lively calisthenics in the gymnasium, we had lunch — creamed asparagus, parsley-battered potatoes, with plum and apricot tarts for dessert. Agatha, who likes to be different, chose rhubarb pie instead of the tart.

A new melody with four-part harmony caught our fancy in music class. It's a march tune sung by the boys at Annapolis. I'll have to look up the place in our geography book to find out where it is — just so I don't need a microscope to find it! You know how my astigmatism bothers me.

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That reminds me of our work in general science; we examined some amphibious creatures — a messy task! Zoology and biology might be fun for boys, but it's agony for me.

When our theses were due in history, Miss Philips said she wouldn't take any anonymous papers. She has a fine sense of humor, but she certainly has an antipathy for autocrats. Democracy is best even in the classroom.

Our chronometer shows that I have monopolized enough of your time today. So, good-bye until tomorrow.

Believe it or not! Every one of the underlined words in the above story is derived from the Greek language. Look in your dictionaries to prove it.

LESSON I

Roots

We have listed below a few of the most common Greek roots. Study them and make use of them in the exercises which follow.

<i>Greek Word</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Derivative</i>
aer	air	aëroplane
agon	a contest	agony
arch	government	monarchy
anthropos	man	philanthropy
aster	a star	astronomy
aristos	best	aristocrat
auto	self	autograph

GREEK

<i>Greek Word</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Derivative</i>
bios	life	biology
chronos	time	chronometer
demos	people	democrat
ge	earth	geology
gramma	a letter	monogram
grapho	write	telegraph
(h)odos	a way	period
(h)omos	like	homonyms
(h)udor	water	hydrant
kratos	rule	autocrat
lithos	stone	lithography
logos	speech, science	philology
metron	measure	geometry
micros	small	microscope
monos	alone	monologue
nomos	law	economy
ode	a song	melody
onoma	a name	anonymous
orthos	right	orthodox
pan	all	panacea
pathos	feeling	sympathy
philos	love	philosophy
phonia	a sound	phonetic
phos	light	photography
physis	nature	physics
polis	a city	politics
sophia	wisdom	philosophy
skopein	to see	telescope
taktos	arranged	syntax
tele	distant	telephone
techne	art	technical
Theos	God	theology
therme	heat	thermometer
titheni	set	thesis
zoon	an animal	zoölogy

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LESSON II

Prefixes

By means of the following list of Greek prefixes you will be able to understand the fundamental meaning of many words which we use frequently, and you will also be able to form many new words.

<i>Greek</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Examples</i>
a- (an-)	not	atheist, anarchist
amphi-	on both sides	amphitheater
ana-	up, again, back	analysis
anti- (ant-)	against	antidote
apo- (aph-)	off, away	apology
auto-	self	autograph
cata- (cath-)	down, against	catastrophe
dia-	through	diagnosis
dis- (di-)	twice, two	dissyllable
epi- (eph-)	on, among	epitaph
eu-	well	euphony
hemi-	half	hemisphere
hyper-	over, beyond	hypercritical
hypo-	under, less than	hypothesis
pan-	all	panacea
para- (par-)	beside	paragraph
peri-	round	period
pro-	before	program
syn- (syl- sym- sy-	with, together	syntax, sympathy

LESSON III

Separate the following words into their component parts, giving the meanings of each part:

EXAMPLE: thermometer — *thermos*, warm; *metron*, measure. An instrument for measuring heat.

G R E E K

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| 1. orthophonic | 6. euphonic |
| 2. biography | 7. program |
| 3. monologue | 8. diameter |
| 4. synonymous | 9. amphibious |
| 5. antipathy | 10. architect |

LESSON IV

Find the prefix or stem which, put before the following stems, forms a word you know:

- | | |
|----------|-----------|
| 1. pathy | 6. archy |
| 2. logue | 7. cratic |
| 3. nomy | 8. graph |
| 4. meter | 9. polis |
| 5. phone | 10. scope |

LESSON V

Make a list of English words derived from Greek which we use in our daily speech or find in our reading, such as *telegram*.

LESSON VI

The following are commonly used Greek-English words. Find five others in magazines or newspapers and add them to the list. See how long a list you can make before the end of the term.

Symphony	Biography
Monotony	Philanthropy
Stenography	

SAMPLE LANGUAGES

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why do people to this day speak of ancient Athens with such admiration?
2. What did ancient Greece have that Rome had not?
3. What is meant by "Spartan simplicity"?
4. What do you think was the secret of Greek superiority?
5. What is meant by a democracy? What is the actual source of the word?
6. In what forms of culture did the Greeks excel?
7. Who was Hippocrates?
8. What is the ideal of good government?
9. What is a good citizen?
10. What does the modern world owe to ancient Greece?
11. What do we mean by beauty in design? Consult your art teacher.
12. What do you think of the idea of obliging a man to vote at elections?
13. Why is freedom necessary to the development of the individual? (This topic could be the subject of a debate.)
14. What is meant by "the Socratic Method"?
15. What did Rome owe to Greece?

ACTIVITIES

1. A committee can work out a report of the following topics: (a) The Age of Pericles, (b) Solon, (c) Themistocles, (d) Draco, (e) Thermopylae, (f) Socrates, (g) Plato, (h) Aristotle.
2. Find out something about the Oracle at Delphi.
3. Tell something about the origin of the Olympic games.
4. Report on the Acropolis at Athens.
5. Tell something about Greek art.
6. Find the meaning of the Latin phrase "mens sana,

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in corpore sano," which was one of the ideals of the ancient Greeks.

7. Go to the art museum and look at some Greek statues. You will see that they are the equal of, if not better than, the best in modern sculpture.

8. Make a miniature Greek temple.

9. Copy in some medium a Greek bust or other piece of sculpture.

10. Tell something about the Greek gods.

11. Compare the Greek and Roman gods.

Epilogue



We have seen what an interesting study a foreign language can be. Other languages are really no queerer than our own, as this bit of verse says:

*OUR QUEER LINGO*¹

When the English tongue we speak
Why is "break" not rimed with "freak"?
Will you tell me why it's true
We say "sew," but likewise "few"?
And the maker of a verse
Cannot rime his "horse" with "worse"?
"Beard" sounds not the same as "heard";
"Cord" is different from "word";
"Cow" is "cow" but "low" is "low";
"Shoe" is never rimed with "foe."
Think of "hose" and "dose" and "lose";
And think of "goose" and yet of "choose."
Think of "comb" and "tomb" and "bomb,"
"Doll" and "roll" and "home" and "some."
And since "pay" is rimed with "say,"
Why not "paid" with "said," I pray?
Think of "blood" and "food" and "good";
"Mould" is not pronounced like "could."
Wherefore "done," but "gone" and "lone" —
Is there any reason known?
To sum up all, it seems to me
Sounds and letters don't agree.

¹ Quoted from the Service Bureau for Classics Teachers.

EPILOGUE

Maybe the day will come when everybody will be able to speak and understand one language besides his own. What will that universal language be? Perhaps the artificial language "Esperanto." Or will it be that simplified form of our own language called "Basic English"? One thing is sure, man will continue to seek until he finds a way to communicate with other men everywhere.

And so we have come to the end of this part of our journey on the language highway. We now know that it is a road leading ever onward and upward. There are steep climbs, dull spots, and numerous obstacles in the path, but that is life itself, and there are always new adventures ahead. We have made many discoveries on our journey. We never realized before what power words have and how many of them have such interesting histories. We never realized that people all over the world have contributed to our language. We never before understood just why there are so many important facts that must be learned in order that we may use our language to the best advantage.

Let us close as we began, with a gesture, a wave of the hand, a smile and a nod, for there is no good-bye to language. It is endless and we have lots more to learn on the language highway. So here's "Bon voyage!" "Auf Wiedersehen!" "A rivederlà!" "Adiós!"

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